

Elementary English

A Magazine of the Language Arts

APRIL, 1961

READING
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WRITING
•
SPEAKING
•
LISTENING
•
SPELLING
•
ENGLISH USAGE
•
CHILDREN'S BOOKS
•
RADIO AND
TELEVISION
•
AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS
•
POETRY
•
CREATIVE
WRITING

LISTENING

FAST READING AND COMPREHENSION

GROUPING IN READING

ENGLISH IN THE MASS MEDIA



From *Pagan the Black*, by Dorothy Potter Benedict,
(Pantheon)

See p. 274

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of Teachers of English*

Elementary ENGLISH

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

221	What Is Listening?	SHEILA SCHWARTZ
225	What Happens Next?	MARY RUSNAK
227	Personalized Reading	EVELYN P. ORR
229	Linguistics and I	CARRIE STEGALL
232	Poise Is Practice Perfected	MARIE MURPHY
233	Approaches to Reading	DAYTON G. ROTHROCK
236	Are Fast Readers the Best Readers?	J. HARLAN SHORES
246	Pupils' Interests in Reading	DOROTHY SKELTON
250	English in the Mass Media	SAMUEL L. BECKER
259	Councilletter	RUTH G. STRICKLAND
261	Windows on the World	Edited by ALICE SANKEY
264	Idea Inventory	Edited by LOUISE H. MORTENSEN
267	The Educational Scene	Edited by WILLIAM A. JENKINS
271	Books for Children	Edited by MABEL F. ALTSTETTER and MURIEL CROSBY

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ELEMENTARY ENGLISH

XXXVIII

APRIL, 1961

NO. 4

SHEILA SCHWARTZ

What Is Listening?

What is listening? Is it a skill that can be taught or, at the very least, guided, or is it a natural part of the learning process with which teachers do not have to be concerned?

Most teachers, even if they do not view it as something to be taught, are concerned with listening, or, they are concerned when it is not present.

How can they improve listening? The traditional method of saying: "Sit up and look at me," is ineffectual. No one can control the mind from wandering. The children's eyes may look at you, but their thoughts may still be with the new bicycle, the party that afternoon, or the quarrel they left at home that morning.

We cannot force listening, and we cannot measure listening. An audiometer can test the child's hearing but no scientific machine has yet been devised to test the level of the child's ability to listen. And we cannot assume that because a child can hear, he will listen.

What is the nature of listening? There is robot type listening which enables the hearer to repeat back verbatim the words of the teacher. Good teachers are not satisfied merely with this type of listening. For this type of listening does not fulfill the purposes of good teachers who want to improve the child's thinking processes and to involve him deeply in the learning process. These teachers want an intelligent reaction.

They aim for the kind of listening which enables a child to listen, think, and synthesize the material into concepts which are particularly his own. The optimum listening involves purpose, critical thinking, evaluation, and communication.

Active listening involves response. The teacher asks "What can the magnet pick up" and the child answers: "Metal" or "I don't know." There is two way communication. The child does not repeat "What can the magnet pick up?" If he did, most teachers would question his thought processes. And yet, how many teachers have been satisfied with this type of *passive* listening!

Nations engaging in passive listening have fallen to disaster. Did the Germans listen actively or passively to Hitler? Do we listen actively or passively to commercials? Can we as teachers settle for the second-best of passive listening, or for the physical form of listening which we induce by the way we make children sit in a listening situation? Another question is, can we assume that there is a relation between bodily position and listening? Perhaps I listen best when I sprawl.

What does active listening imply in addition to the fact that critical thinking is taking place? Does it imply maturity? Has it psychological ramifications?

Let us think of it in terms of adults, in terms of our friends. Have you certain friends to whom you can talk, who for the brief moments that you are speaking can suspend their own egos and become involved with your concerns? Are there cer-

Miss Schwartz is in the Division of Early Childhood Education at New York University.

tain people who are thought of as good listeners because of their willingness to give of themselves in this way? Are they good listeners because they say "Yes" or because they can give an intelligent response? Usually the latter is true.

But have you other friends who never listen? They ask "How are you?" but before you can respond their attention has gone. They just want to tell you. No matter what you say, their response is solely in terms of themselves. They truly do not listen, and perhaps do not even hear. You tend to think of such people as immature, and chances are that you are right. For maturity implies constant growth, learning, and development, and how can one grow if one never listens?

The way that one listens is as surely the measure of a man as is the way he speaks.

How can we guide, develop, and improve this active listening which is so important for life in our world today? Suppose we have a child who is so tired of his mother's nagging that he turns off his listening automatically in the presence of adults. Suppose we have a child who listens but does not release his response so that we have no way of knowing whether he listened or not.

The important thing to remember here is that if we view listening as a skill which we can help to develop, we need not view it as a short-range goal which we must bring to a peak of perfection as soon as our classes are exposed to us. We must remember that the right kind of listening is difficult for many adults, and that we are doing a good job if we take children even a short way along the right road.

The first aspect of this guidance is the teacher-pupil relationship. Motivation too is a factor here. The pupil must view the teacher (and this is even more true in the upper grades where being the teacher is not enough), as someone worth listening to, as

someone of interest, who speaks not for self-gratification but for purposes which are clearly evident to the children. The teacher must talk directly to the student and always in a relational sense, rather than talking *at* them for self-release.

How many of us have heard teachers stand at the front of the room and conduct a running stream of commentary as if the children were not there? Sometimes it sounds like this:

"Has anyone ever seen a class like this? This is the worst class I've ever had. Other classes knew that the fire drill gong meant no talking. But this class just goes on its merry way as if it's not even in school. I just don't know what Mr. Smith (the principal) is going to say," etc. The children tune out. She's not relating to them and they are certainly not relating to her.

Another teacher, conscious of the relationship needed for listening, may ask: "Why do we have fire drills?" thus immediately involving the children in a discussion which will lead to improved behavior during fire drills.

In addition to relating to the pupils the teacher must interest the pupils. Her voice must be clear, varied, and easily heard in all corners of the room. It should have pleasant nuances which do not threaten the child if he listens. Every teacher should have occasional meetings with the speech therapist, music teacher, or a group of other teachers, during which she evaluates her voice on a tape recorder. She should ask: "Is my voice clear? It is warm, endearing, interesting, varied, and lacking discordances?" The teacher should also listen as she speaks in the classroom. "Would I want my child's teacher to speak like this?" she might ask herself. And self-listening is a valuable tool of group dynamics, not only with children but with peer groups.

In addition to an interesting voice, the motivations for learning must be interesting. Motivation need involve no gimmicks. All it need involve is the children. I have seen a teacher hold up a leaf and ask: "Why do you think this leaf has veins going through it?" and be launched on a fine listening experience. I have also heard teachers say: "Today we are going to talk about how leaves get food. Who knows?" and seen a good proportion of the class automatically tune out. Challenge is related, not to the difficulty of the work, but to the effort that involves a person in making relationships and solving problems. The truly knowledgeable person realizes how little man knows as yet about any subject. A fine doctor recently said to me: "We still do not understand why this happens."

If man's knowledge is still limited in almost any field we choose to discuss, then it is possible to teach any subject in terms of problem solving. The teacher must constantly ask "Why" and this honest refrain, communicated to the children, can eventually involve almost all of them. Motivation and involvement lead to a reason for listening. An understanding of the purpose for listening is one of the best ways to improve children's listening attitudes.

Another factor for the teacher to bear in mind is that listening is related to patterns of courtesy and that she is the model from which children absorb courtesy habits. A teacher who always says, "Thank you," soon finds her children doing this, whether or not there has been any direct teaching involved.

Similarly, it is useless for the teacher to think about improving listening unless she listens. A teacher who wants children to listen and respond to her must do the same to her students. A pat answer doesn't fool the children. ("Teacher, my mother

just had a baby." "Isn't that nice, now go and finish your work.")

The teacher must listen, not only to what is said, but "with a third ear" to what isn't said. To the attitudes, fears, worries, and other emotions behind the words. Children soon lock a large part of themselves away from non-listening teachers. This in turn cuts down their listenership since there has been erected an additional barrier to the teacher's knowing them.

The teacher cannot teach direct listening lessons. She cannot plan "Today I will teach listening." All that she can do is to plan for activities which will show children the values of listening and will help to sensitize and focus their listening.

If the children are listening to a radio, television program, or committee report, they can listen with pencils in hand to write down questions or comments.

They can discuss information to listen for before a program such as the above, or before the visit of a resource helper.

Many games can be played which will help to focus listening. Progressive games such as *Ghost*, and *My Grandmother Went to California and in Her Trunk She Took a ———*, and *Simple Simon* are good. The teacher, knowing her goals, can devise games in which listening is necessary for the correct response. The children may have to clap each time they hear the character's name, etc.

All activities which require a two-way dialogue or response are good for listening purposes. Choral speaking, antiphonal poetry or singing (alternation of responses), supplying rhyming words when the teacher waits while reading a poem, and coming in on cue in dramatics are some of these activities.

Identification of differences in sounds is another area which lends itself to infinite variation depending on the ingenuity of the

teacher. High and low musical notes can be identified. Faster and slower music, dance music, walking music, and running music can be identified, etc.

Through all of these activities the children should also be encouraged to listen to each other. One of the ideas a teacher should impart is that listenership is a responsibility. The class has a responsibility to interact through listening to all classmates, the slow speakers, the uncertain

speakers, and the incorrect speakers. This should not be carried to the extreme of letting certain speakers completely dominate the situation. It merely means that the teacher strives to give equality of self-expression to all. The good teacher remembers that listening and speaking are partners in a bi-polar relationship and their maximum development in each child is of immeasurable importance.

ELEMENTARY SECTION NOMINEES

The Nominating Committee of the Elementary Section presents the following nominations for members of the Section Committee and NCTE Directors, to be elected by mail in May. The Council Constitution provides that additional nominees may be placed on the ballot upon petition of fifteen members of the Section. This year's Nominating Committee, elected by the Section at the Chicago convention, consists of: Eleanor Crouch (Carmel, California, Schools), James MacCampbell (University of Maine), and Naomi C. Chase (University of Minnesota), chairman.

Elementary Section Committee

(two to be elected)

Mrs. Gloria Ferland, Reading Supervisor,

Millinocket Schools Department, Millinocket, Maine.

Miss Thelma Gentry, classroom teacher, Oakland, California, Public Schools.

Dr. Norine Odland, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

Mrs. Drusilla Rhodes, County Supervisor, Sonoma County, California.

Elementary Section Representatives

on the Board of Directors

(two to be elected)

Dr. Barbara Hartsig, Orange State College, California.

Mrs. Nancy Keller Johansen, teacher, Laboratory School, University of Missouri.

Dr. Leonard Joll, State Department of Education, Connecticut.

Miss Virginia Reid, Oakland, California, Public Schools.

The 1961 Committee on Resolutions of the National Council of Teachers of English includes Professor Richard Meade, Chairman, University of Virginia; John Ragle, Springfield High School, Vermont; and Professor L. M. Myers, Arizona State University, Tempe. Resolutions to be considered by the committee must be submitted to one of these members no later than November 15, 1961.

What Happens Next?

Before learning to read, first grade children discover structure and sequence in familiar folk tales and rhymes.

One of the vital skills in learning to read with understanding is the ability to see and interpret sequence in written material. Children who see a story as a logically built structure of events and ideas are able to comprehend as they read, to relate each new word and sentence meaningfully to the preceding ones, and are facilitated in handling new vocabulary by meaning they can expect to find. An introduction to sequence, then, is always an important part of the reading readiness program.

In this first grade, a variety of activities with pictures, storytelling, games, and dramatics were worked out around familiar literature to provide a rich understanding of sequence and story structure during the readiness period. From the beginning of the year, the children heard well known rhymes and stories: "Sing a Song of Sixpence," "Hey Diddle Diddle," "The Three Bears," "Little Red Riding Hood," "Chicken Little."

Illustrations from inexpensive editions of the stories were mounted on separate cards and became games of sequence. The children took turns mixing up the cards and calling on each other to arrange them in order. They then mixed cards from several stories, separated out the cards from each story, and arranged them to show what happened next. As a variation, one child hid a card, and the group guessed which episode was missing and described it.

At their desks, the children folded paper into four parts and drew illustrations to the stories in sequence. They cut out the four pictures, mixed them up, and then placed them in order, to make little books. Some members of the group made up picture stories of their own and told them while displaying the illustrations, one by one:

Story with Pictures

1. This man wanted to find a wife.
2. He found two Easter eggs.
3. He opened one and found a rabbit.
4. He opened the other and found a girl rabbit.
5. He married her and lived happily ever after.

Nursery rhymes were used first rhythmically, with an appropriate action for each part of the rhyme. Then small groups of children presented a rhyme to the class, each performing in order. In "Hey Diddle Diddle," first the cat with the fiddle played, then the cow jumped, the dog laughed, and finally, the dish ran away with the spoon. Progressing from these simple dramatizations with rhymes, small groups organized and presented plays based on the folk tales. The whole class helped decide what should happen in each scene. Scene I: Mother Bear is fixing the porridge. Scene II: The three bears go for a walk. Scene III: Goldilocks comes. . . .

Inspired by these dramatic experiences, the children made original playlets and puppet shows, very simple and brief, but with definite sequence and structure:

Mrs. Rusnak is a first grade teacher in the Winnetka, Illinois, Public Schools.

Puppet Show about Prehistoric Monsters

Announcer: This is a monster play, about when they first came into the world.

Scene I: This is a monster walking and looking for a home.

Scene II: This is another monster, a giant spider. He is looking for a home too.

Scene III: Now they both find a home.

As actual reading instruction began and

progressed, experiences with sequence, like all parts of the readiness program, continued and expanded. Finding and analyzing order naturally grew into a part of the reading process: "What word do you think will come next?" "What will the children do now?" So first graders found themselves using the familiar idea of sequence constantly as a basis for reasoning as they read—with every new word, sentence, and event in a story, asking themselves again, "What happens next?"

Following are some editorial comments on the new Council report on *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*:

NEW YORK TIMES, January 29, 1961:
(Fred Hechinger)

"The crux of the Council's message is that there must be nothing permissive about standards of English teaching and learning. There can be no 'local option' about a 'bed-rock' subject. English taught as it ought to be, it is the key to all learning and a reminder that education is a systematic enterprise, not a game of chance."

PHILADELPHIA INQUIRER, January 29, 1961:

"The National Council of Teachers of English, it seems to us, has produced the most constructive and penetrating analysis yet brought before the public of what should be done to correct the manifest weakness in U. S. education which, in spite of much talk, is not being alleviated but is growing more acute."

WALL STREET JOURNAL:

"... The Council reports that 70% of all colleges and universities are forced to offer remedial work in English fundamentals. The group attributes this condition to low school standards for teacher certification and to inadequate teacher training. . . .

What is needed is a renewed philosophy of teaching teachers—teaching them less about classroom manner, and more about the subject they are paid to impart."

NEW YORK HERALD TRIBUNE, January 29, 1961: (Terry Ferrer)

"The serious deficiencies in present English instruction have just been reviewed in a comprehensive study by the National Council of Teachers of English. The 140-page report—the first by the council in thirty-five years and one of the most extensive ever—gives some startling facts. . . English, which embraces two of the three R's, is essential to every other study that child or man undertakes. Its strengthening and rebirth are as urgent as the eloquent plea of the council for immediate and far-reaching efforts."

PEEKSKILL (N. Y.) EVENING STAR, January 27, 1961:

"The Council is to be saluted for the honesty and the courage with which it has attacked this problem. Rare, indeed, is the professional body which is willing to admit publicly that the educational standards in its field are not merely bad, but so miserably bad as to cry for radical improvement. Its admission is a solid step in the direction of achieving that improvement."

Personalized Reading

A fifth grade teacher for many years, I was suddenly changed, this past year, into a reading teacher. After several graduate courses on how to teach reading and many hours of experience in teaching reading—from remedial classes on first level to accelerated classes for talented youth on college level—I have come to the conclusion that the very best way of teaching reading would be by the individualized or personalized method. My question now is, how can I adapt my knowledge to an individualized reading program for an active, alert class of thirty-five fifth graders?

Much interest has been expressed in individualized programs. Not enough material has been written about how to do it, and all the statistics have not yet been compiled as to its effectiveness and success. One thing is certain—a lazy, lackadaisical teacher cannot put it across, for it means hours of planning, testing, evaluating, collecting, and organizing to prepare a class for this method. The word "individualized" might be misleading, for it means to me, "each child taught individually." Actually, there are times for group work and the sharing of experiences with the entire class. Perhaps "personalized" would be a better name, for this means a deep personal interest in each child, a person to person relationship, yet not restricted to an individual basis.

The personalized method will require a teacher with patience, to get the group down to reading each on his own level; endurance, for carrying the heavy loads

of materials; understanding when thirty-five pupils mill around searching for materials on their own level, and a thick skin, to withstand the criticisms of anything new and the old saying, "I don't want my child to be a guinea pig in any experiments." There is no doubt that the teacher plays the most important role, since the growth of the teacher in her ability to use the various means at her disposal, in humanizing teaching and promoting growth of boys and girls, determines the success of the program.

But supposing a teacher has the stamina and the courage to attempt this program, what are some of the things she must do? The old adage, "Know thyself," would certainly be applicable here. What are her aims and objectives? Certainly in teaching reading the first aim would be to increase the child's vocabulary. A phonic approach with word attack skills will be needed for the slow learners. Improvement in comprehension and speed, another aim, will require much drill in concept building, critical reading, learning to organize information and facts, and learning to skim. An objective that cannot be left out is to cultivate in the child a desire for reading and a taste for what he should need. This will be much easier in a personalized reading program with materials plentiful and carefully screened as to individual interest and desirability.

After the aims and objectives are established, the teacher then needs to know her children. This means a thorough testing program to determine the mental age, intelligence quotient, visual and hearing defects, interests, and personality traits.

Mrs. Orr is a fifth grade teacher in the Hamilton County (Tennessee) public schools.

By observation the teacher can find the child's needs as influenced by his environment. From past cumulative school records, she can get a good picture of the child's ability and potentiality.

One of the first questions a teacher will ask is, "Where can I get enough materials?" This is an important question, but one a teacher must not use as an excuse. There is a wealth of material available if she will only look around her. School and public libraries, a pupil's own personal library, or the books of friends and neighbors that are collecting dust on a shelf and just waiting to be used. There are many free materials available and some for a very nominal fee. An enthusiastic teacher, who can sell her principal and P.T.A. on this program, will find funds to buy the Science Research Laboratories, controlled readers, reading accelerators, tachistoscope, encyclopedias, and children's book clubs.

How can a teacher determine the different levels of the material? Many books indicate the level. Word lists in the back may help, but don't be afraid to ask for professional advice. Librarians, reading teachers, and specialists in reading are always glad to help. Book companies will send word lists upon request, but the very best way for discovering the right level is the child's ability to read and understand the material.

After objectives are set up, tests given, and materials obtained, we are ready for

the plunge into a new and exciting adventure. Periods must be adjusted, classrooms must be arranged, and instructions must be given. Trial and error methods may be necessary even after much planning. The program must be flexible to achieve the most benefits for the individual student. Should children read on a level where they are ninety per cent or more successful or should they practice at a more difficult level? Bright children can be challenged with more difficult material than slow children, older children more than younger children; so this must be considered when adjusting the levels after the teacher knows her pupils.

Last, but certainly one of the most important things in this personalized method, is the keeping of accurate progress charts and records. A simplified chart that the child can keep himself will help. A folder or file on each child, where his work may be placed for later evaluation by the teacher, is a must. Self evaluation and class evaluation can be used effectively.

We have long recognized the fact that individual study and guidance is required for all poor readers, so why can't we as eagerly accept the same plan for our average and gifted children? There is a wide range of interests, needs, and abilities in these groups, too. At least I have convinced myself that this program is the very best way for me to teach reading. I can hardly wait for next year to put it into practice.

The Snow

When it snows.
The wind blows.
It bites my toes.

Billy Padin, age 7
Pelham, New York

Linguistics and I

Just as I had become comfortably established in my grammatical Garden of Eden and had finally developed a surefire method of teaching the eight parts of speech to my elementary children, I began looking around for other worlds to conquer. Delighted when nearby Midwestern University inaugurated a graduate program, I enrolled to study toward my second major in English.

Innocent of the demoralized thinking that had invaded some hallowed college English textbooks since my last bout with them, I was completely unaware of the imperceptible rustling of the serpent that was so soon to bring chaos and discontent into my secure and sheltered teaching. The first time the word *linguist* slithered across the page of Margaret Bryant's *The Heritage of the English Language*, I dismissed it as I did other words of equal insignificance. (I knew before I could spell it that a *linguist* was one proficient in languages.)

I don't know, of course, how many times that innocent-looking word stretched itself across the pages I was asked to read. But, then, neither do I remember when I began hearing it coming from the tongue of my young professor, Dr. Saralyn Daly, and even from the mouths of babes, those brilliant underclassmen who made up my class. I casually wondered about their apparent attachment to the word—nothing more.

Then I began wading through a ponderous book about grammar, one ostensibly

written by a heretic. But broadminded me! I was the very epitome of tolerance. If Charles Carpenter Fries wanted to sell his birthright for a mess of linguistic pottage, that was his business, not mine. I pitied the poor soul who hadn't had my high school English and Latin teacher to set him on the right track! Perhaps he hadn't had the advantage of having been reared on the fundamental belief that Grammar was the sixty-seventh book of the Bible.

Somehow during those next months I stacked up enough hours to entitle me to a Master of Arts degree, and, consequently, considered the wisdom of sending CCF my imposing thesis, *The Place of Grammar in Composition*, to clarify his reasoning.

Then through the haze, when I had finished those eighteen months of cramming for credit and had settled down to digest slowly the significance of my storehouse of facts, the wisdom and counsel of my professor began belatedly to seep through my mental block. I recalled how, after my frequent outbursts about the stupidity of the modern approach, she had never argued; she had never forced her opinion; she had never reprimanded; she had never ridiculed. She had always said quietly, "Carrie, just be able to defend your statements."

Though I was unaware of the increased rustling and activity of the serpent in my secure and impregnable Garden at the time, in retrospect I recall brief and scanty glimpses of the tempting apple. Was the seed of doubt germinating then?

Perhaps. At any rate I laid specific plans to sit in on Dr. Fries' sectional meeting

Mrs. Stegall teaches in Holliday, Texas, and is a valued contributor to *Elementary English*.

at my first NCTE convention in Los Angeles in 1953. My first impulse when I saw him was to exclaim, "Look, no horns!" However, when I had sat through that lecture demonstrating the importance of word order, not terminology, in "wiggling woggling" sentences, I exclaimed, "Hear, no brains!" There were similar comments all around me.

In the hour that followed, however, with this strange "no-horns, no-brains" heretic patiently explaining to me personally his strange philosophy, I reluctantly admitted that he just might have a point. Then I added, "But you know, of course, that you'll have to wait until all old grammarians have died off before you can possibly get your foot in the door advancing such crazy ideas."

"I think not," he answered graciously, "Now is the time."

In the months that followed, the serpent in my Garden became specifically identified as **STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS**. I couldn't find a satisfying definition of it. I couldn't remember whether to use it with a singular or plural verb. But I was fascinated, sometimes cautious, sometimes terrified. Nevertheless, after I came under the hypnotic spell, there was no escape. I didn't want to leave my comfortable niche, but I bit into that beguiling old apple with a vengeance—and consequently I was lost forever to my grammatical Garden.

In succeeding years I have wandered over the faces of books, struggled through workshops, conversed with scholars, especially Dr. Daly, Dr. Priscilla Tyler of Harvard University, and Dr. Sumner Ives of North Texas State College, and have finally come up with the answer to my problem, a satisfying personal definition: Structural Linguistics is the study of the natural and informal structure of oral language as used by educated people.

(Please, for my elementary children I don't *want* a more exact and complicated definition than this, even if the linguists do protest. I am not concerned with formal, written structure *now*.)

With this awakening, I was suddenly catapulted in memory back to my desk in my high school English class where I had had the hardest time remembering to say, "I shall go to town Friday," instead of the "substandard" usage, "I am going to town Friday." Or, remembering to say, "To whom did you speak?" instead of the "substandard" usage, "Whom (who) did you speak to?" (Too often mine came out, "To whom did you speak to?")

Capturing this correct and formal speech on the written page had been no particular problem. Careful proofreading beside an opened handbook gave me assurance and confidence. My writing was as stilted and correct as a rule book decreed before it reached an audience.

Though I could write acceptably, I could not speak "correctly," and I found no consolation in other people's "degrading" speech. My particular brand of misery didn't want company. I *knew* my English grammar; there was no doubt about it. Yet, I felt that inability to use it correctly in fluent speech was a personal tragedy, one I despaired of rising above. I did not confide my misery to my wise and understanding high school teacher because she had done her job, and well. The rest was up to me.

I entered college. I took the vow. I would learn to *speak* English correctly. (I never even dreamed of attempting to teach it!)

Still, thirty-plus years later, it's no wonder I'm not a speaker. I'm still scared to death of formal usage in oral form. But now I do appreciate company, and I shall never forget the wonder and awe I experienced when I first heard a past presi-

dent of the National Council of Teachers of English use a plural pronoun with a singular antecedent! My chief reaction, I think, was the relief I felt at realizing that perhaps I was not eternally doomed to second class citizenship.

But what does the subject, *STRUCTURAL LINGUISTICS*, have to do with this soul searching? Having been bounced out of my grammatical Garden of Eden, I have been forced to look further into the object of my temptation. Looking, I have found tentative success—only tentative, remember.

This new "wonder drug" seems to be the exact opposite of the semi-cure to which I was submitted. Instead of beginning with the book of pseudo grammar and proceeding to writing and then to speech, this structural linguistics cure begins at the base of the disease, speech, and proceeds to writing and then—if need be—to grammar. If the average patient doesn't want to continue with the whole cure, to formal speech and writing, he can, nevertheless, acquire a measure of success in acceptable informal usage, sufficient to insure him freedom from speech fear in his life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness.

To this end, my fourth and eighth graders are being guided to observe and imitate the natural informal structure of the English language as used by teachers and other educated people of their acquaintance. They also note the easy flow of language in their short stories and library books. You see, it is informal structure in written form. Simple and elementary sentence patterns that do no violence to the prevailing terminology of traditional grammar (except perhaps to ignore much of it) are being slowly and cautiously developed in the classroom with the children's help and suggestions. The "movables" in sentences endow us all with the

luxury of pleasing and exciting varieties in sentence structure. We love to pattern our own ideas after the style of *Tom Sawyer*, *Little Women*, *Heidi*, and stories from our current textbooks. Sentence patterns make the difference!

We don't turn to the rule books for the answers to our questions and problems. We listen, always mindful of *who* is speaking and *why* before we accept his speech as a model. We read, with the same guards up that we use when listening because, after all, reading is just speaking captured on paper with some necessary signals thrown in (as a substitute for the voice). Then carefully, but freely, we speak and write, trying to emulate worthy models. When in doubt about the worthiness of the model, I, the teacher, turn to Robert Pooley, or some similar expert, just as I turn to experts for information in any other area of knowledge when my children pop questions that are completely foreign to me.

No, my teaching isn't what it used to be. My classroom is more like a three-ring circus now than like the straight jacket ward of a mental institution. Recently when Gil's mother came to tell me how hard she was pushing him to make him learn the rules, I said, "Zettie, you're being too hard on him. Relax. Let up." She said, "Look who's talking. Remember, Mrs. Stegall, I had you in the fifth grade." And I answered, "Yes, I remember, but times have changed, Zettie, and so has my teaching."

Yes, times have changed since I dared to sample the apple in my Eden and was forced to flee from the wrath of my own conscience. It's true that I haven't found many of the answers, and I am forced to keep searching. I am not comfortable and secure and satisfied in my teaching any

(Continued on page 263)

Poise Is Practice Perfected

If you ever wish for the thought organization and speaking ability of an orator or an actress you are often misled into believing that one either "has" or "has not" a gift for this form of expression. Experiences in working with children of six, seven, eight, and nine years old indicate that "Poise Is Practice Perfected." With training and practice children of these ages were able to demonstrate a typical lesson in a natural way for a University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee Education class.

SETTING THE STAGE FOR LEARNING

A chairman is selected by the teacher for his or her leadership qualities, potential qualities, or, perhaps to teach that being a chairman requires skills that every individual needs to develop. To be a good chairman is to learn to forget "Me, first," and petty quibbling. Lists are written on the blackboard to guide the class in each role. After the first time the children suggest in their own words the standards of evaluation and the goals. When each speaker or singer has completed his selection the chairman calls on the audience to analyze the points the speaker was trying to observe and demonstrate. The speaker, in response to the chairman's question, appraises the audience's attempts to achieve their objectives. It is encouraging to note how fairly and graciously the chairmen "live" their important roles. Choice of speakers *can* rest with the chairman. The chairman presides for a ten or

twenty minute period. The teacher helps the speakers and audience evaluate the progress of each chairman.

SECURITY IS BUILT UPON KNOWLEDGE OF STANDARDS AND EXPECTATIONS

Chairman

1. Be fair. Give turns to both boys and girls.
2. Watch to see if all can hear the speaker.
3. If there is a noise or any interruption (like a cadet coming in with a message or a visitor coming in), stop everything until it is quiet again and everyone is ready.
4. Choose quickly.
5. Ask the speaker about the audience and help the audience check the speaker's good points and mention which ones he needs to work on next time.

Speaker

1. Know what you are going to say. (Think and plan how to say it.)
2. Stand tall and look at the audience. Wait till they are ready.
3. Speak loudly and slowly enough so that all can hear and understand you.
4. Help the audience learn to listen by checking their points with the chairman.

Audience

1. Sit quietly. Look at the speaker.
2. Think about what the speaker is saying.
3. If you have a question, wait for the right time to ask and do it politely.

(Continued on p. 263)

Miss Murphy is a teacher in Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

Heterogeneous, Homogeneous, or Individualized Approach To Reading?

Teachers have long argued the merits of homogeneous grouping versus heterogeneous grouping. The former method has come and gone and has been revived again.

A newer approach, perhaps, to the problem of organizing the class for instruction is the individualized approach. Much has been written in recent years about the merits of this approach in the teaching of reading. Other grouping patterns have also been tried over the years. Numerous claims have been made for the advantages of some of these plans and the rate of gain that can be expected if this or that method is used.

Since many school administrators and teachers are casting about for more effective ways of organizing their classes, the writer conducted an experiment to compare the effectiveness of three approaches in organizing the reading class. Admittedly, class organization is only a small part of the total reading program, but it does seem to present a real problem to many teachers. Because of large classes and the wide range of abilities among pupils, some teachers are prevented from doing an effective job of teaching.

In a controlled experiment, a heterogeneous, a homogeneous, and an individualized approach to the teaching of reading were compared. The heterogeneous ap-

proach was the traditional method of teaching a varied group of children with the possibility of using small intra-class groups. The homogeneous approach was the plan in which the children crossed grade levels and moved to the room that approximated their reading level. The individualized approach followed as closely as possible the interpretation of this method as described in current literature.

The fourth and fifth grades of the McPherson Public Schools, McPherson, Kansas, were selected for the experiment which was to run from September to May of one school year. A total of 186 cases were finally compared, with four classes in each of the three approaches being used.

Factors that were considered to be comparable were the socio-economic background of the pupils, the size of the classes, the materials available, and the experience and training of the teachers. Every possible effort was made to make the teaching design of the four teachers in each of the approaches uniform for that approach. It was considered essential in this experiment that three variables should be controlled through the statistical design of analysis of covariance. These variables were intelligence, previous reading achievement, and sex.

The Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Test A, Reading Comprehension, and Test B, Work-Study Skills were used to measure the reading achievement of the

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children. Eight months elapsed between the giving of Form L and Form M of these tests.

In analyzing the results of the tests it was found that at the 1 per cent level of confidence the homogeneous approach had made a significant gain in three of four divisions. Only in reading comprehension for the fifth grade had any one of the approaches failed to make a significantly superior gain. In both the fourth and fifth grades in study skills the homogeneous

approach had made a superior gain. It also was significantly superior in reading comprehension at the fourth grade level. The individualized approach scored next high in the three significant tests.

Tables for Test A (reading comprehension) and Test B (work-study skills) at both the fourth and fifth grade levels are summarized in the following tables. Adjusted means are given for the three significant comparisons.

Means for I.Q., Fall and Spring Test Scores for Test A, Fifth Grade

Approach	Number	I.Q.	Fall Test	Spring Test	Gain*
Heterogeneous	34	111.6	5.21	6.57	1.36
Homogeneous	34	111.9	5.78	7.14	1.36
Individualized	34	112.8	5.64	7.07	1.43

*By using the statistical design of analysis of covariance which controlled intelligence, previous reading achievement, and sex, it was found that there were no significant differences in the gains made by the three approaches.

Means for I.Q., Fall and Spring Test Scores for Test B, Fifth Grade

Approach	Number	I.Q.	Fall Test	Spring Test	Gain	Adj. Mean
Heterogeneous	34	110.9	5.25	6.37	1.12	6.56
Homogeneous	34	111.8	5.76	7.02	1.26	6.94*
Individualized	34	113.1	5.72	6.79	1.07	6.69

*Significant at the 1% level of confidence

Means for I.Q., Fall and Spring Test Scores for Test A, Fourth Grade

Approach	Number	I.Q.	Fall Test	Spring Test	Gain	Adj. Mean
Heterogeneous	28	108.3	4.35	5.61	1.26	5.40
Homogeneous	28	111.4	4.46	6.13	1.67	6.02*
Individualized	28	109.0	4.05	5.55	1.50	5.66

*Significant at the 1% level of confidence

Means for I.Q., Fall and Spring Test Scores for Test B, Fourth Grade

Approach	Number	I.Q.	Fall Test	Spring Test	Gain	Adj. Mean
Heterogeneous	28	108.3	4.15	5.21	1.06	5.25
Homogeneous	28	111.4	4.01	6.02	2.01	6.00*
Individualized	28	109.0	4.11	5.58	1.47	5.60

*Significant at the 1% level of confidence

It became very obvious throughout the study that whenever good teaching was done with appropriate materials and children were stimulated, great improvement in reading achievement could result under each of the three methods. On some tests groups scored a 100 per cent gain above the expected gain; in other cases the gain was 20, 18, and 16 months' gain in an 8-month period. This was true of some groups in all of the plans. (A high I.Q. average probably accounted for part of this high gain.)

Schools or teachers within a school do not need to use the same organizational pattern to achieve good gains during a year. Some schools are seeking for easy answers to their reading problems, usually through some magic rearrangement of the teachers or pupils; they are not likely to find the answers in this way. A well-qualified teacher may still be by far the most important factor in any grouping plan.

Other conclusions that were drawn from the study tried to show some of the related values of the three approaches. Test results were also analyzed for the first and fourth quartiles of pupils. It was found that none of the plans was superior with the first quartile, but with the fourth quartile some form of grouping or individualizing of instruction was found to be more effective, especially with the work-study skills.

In another analysis of the results it was found that individual pupils could make good gains under all of the approaches. Some pupils made over two years' gain under each of the plans; likewise some pupils showed a loss under each of the plans.

A reading attitude test was given at the beginning of the year and was repeated again at the end of the school year. The individualized approach showed the greatest gain in favorable attitudes toward reading as indicated by both the pupils' and teachers' ratings.

There was some indication from a survey of the number of books read by the pupils that the individualized participants had done the most outside reading during the year.

While the writer made every possible effort to control all the major variables in the experiment, he is not convinced that teacher motivation and competence were equal in all of the methods. The heterogeneous plan was carried over from former years in one school, and the teachers of individualized reading were inexperienced in this approach.

The writer hopes that teachers and administrators will be very careful in changing their reading method because of the reported research of this experiment or even several experiments. A real weakness in most of these experiments is that few standardized reading tests are designed to measure some very important parts of the reading program. Most standardized tests fail to measure such important areas as reading attitudes, carry-over values, oral interpretation, critical reading skills, word attack skills, etc. Also, for years the social and emotional effects of class groupings have been discussed, but little research has been done in this area.

The organizational pattern for the teaching of reading and other subjects must take into account many factors, not just the gain made on a teacher-made or standardized achievement test.

Are Fast Readers the Best Readers? —A Second Report*

Whether fast readers are the best readers depends in large part upon what is meant by reading rate; that is, upon how rate is measured. Reading rate is ordinarily measured as an original reading time (*i.e.*, the words read per minute during a single reading and not including the time taken to answer comprehension questions), or it is measured as a total reading time including both the time for a single original reading and the time taken to answer comprehension questions. Most rate measures either do not permit rereading or discourage this practice even though some reading, such as keeping a long series of ideas in mind in proper sequence or following precise directions, obviously requires re-reading even by proficient readers.

It is at once apparent that a single rapid reading for superficial comprehension is a different measure from one that also includes time to answer questions. The question-answering task is often as time-consuming as is the actual reading. It is also apparent that neither of these tests is the same as a measure of the amount of time taken to read and use these materials for whatever comprehension purpose the reader has in mind.

*This study was conducted with the assistance of a research fund provided by Spencer Press, publishers of *Our Wonderful World*, *Childrens Hour*, and *The American Peoples Encyclopedia*.

Dr. Shores is Professor of Education at the University of Illinois. His earlier report on the same subject, with Dr. Kenneth Husbands, was published in *Elementary English* in January, 1950.

The fact that experiments with reading speed have differed in what is measured as reading rate probably accounts in large part for the somewhat conflicting findings. Realizing that some readers go through the materials once rapidly and then reread all or part of the material for the specific purposes set by the comprehension questions, an adequate measure of reading rate must provide three scores—an original reading rate, a time for reading the questions, rereading the materials, and answering the questions; and a total time which is the sum of the previous two.

The question then, "Are fast readers the good readers?" needs to be broken down into several questions. Defining a "good reader" as one who comprehends well, we need to ask, "Are good readers those who read rapidly during an initial reading?" Do the good readers read rapidly when dealing with the study-type comprehension questions and when rereading to answer the questions? Are the good readers those who take less time in total to read, reread, and answer questions? A single answer is not adequate for these three questions and they in turn give rise to others. Are the fast readers the good readers on each of these measures regardless of the difficulty of the material and the purpose for reading? It is to these questions that this article is directed.

In the January, 1950, issue of *Elementary English* this author and Kenneth L. Husbands reported an investigation concerned with the relationship between reading speed

and comprehension (5). The general conclusion of this study was that there is no relationship between reading speed and comprehension when the task is difficult. The fast reader was not the best reader when he was reading biological science material in order to solve a problem. In fact, under these conditions the efficient and able reader slowed his rate to that of the inefficient reader.

Student and Adult Populations

The present study, like the earlier one, was conducted with sixth-grade students. However, in the current study data were also collected from a group of able adult

readers, and more adequate instrumentation was employed throughout.

All forty-six sixth graders of a K-12 consolidated school on the Southeastern coast of the United States comprised the student population. Even through the "tourist trade" was the largest industry, each of the children included was a permanent resident of the county. It is apparent from Table 1 that the children were of average age in grade and were somewhat above average in intelligence and reading achievement. In terms of their mental ability the group may have been slightly under-achieving. Table 1 also indicates that the two sixth-grade groups reading for different

TABLE 1

EQUIVALENCE OF GROUPS READING FOR MAIN IDEAS AND FOR IDEAS IN SEQUENCE EXPRESSED IN RAW SCORES

Measure	Group A (Main Ideas)		Group B (Sequence)		Group A plus B	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
C.A. (months)	137.48	4.28	135.83	6.51	136.65	5.41
M.A. (months)	151.57	26.88	147.61	22.92	149.59	24.78
California Reading*						
Comprehension	29.26	6.80	27.87	6.11	28.57	6.43
Total Score	104.43	14.97	103.65	15.19	104.04	14.92
Iowa Silent Reading**						
Comprehension	69.87	22.88	71.13	21.73	70.50	22.07
Rate	26.70	8.23	26.57	10.16	26.63	9.14
Total Score	122.26	35.23	124.91	36.16	123.58	35.32
Combined Scores—						
California plus Iowa						
Comprehension	99.13	28.53	99.00	26.22	99.07	27.09
Vocabulary	100.43	16.85	103.00	16.67	101.72	16.62

*Ernest W. Tiegs and Willis W. Clark, *California Reading Test*, Los Angeles; California Test Bureau, 1950.

**H. A. Greene and V. H. Kelley, *Iowa Silent Reading Tests*, Yonkers on Hudson, N. Y.; World Book Co., 1956.

purposes were closely equivalent in chronological age, mental age, and measures of general reading abilities.

The adult group was taken from several advanced undergraduate and graduate uni-

versity-level courses dealing with the teaching of reading. A few of these were juniors and seniors in the program preparatory to teaching in the elementary grades. The majority were experienced teachers and ad-

ministrators working toward graduate degrees.

Tests Used

With the sixth-grade students four reading rate measures provided ten rate scores, and five comprehension measures provided eleven comprehension scores. The Iowa Silent Reading Tests (2) gave one rate score based on a portion of original reading time. Three tests developed by the author, each measuring an aspect of the reading of science materials, provided three rate scores each—a measure of original reading time, a measure of rereading and question-answering time, and a measure of total reading time.

Each of the rate tests provided one or more measures of comprehension and the California Achievement Tests (7) provided additional comprehension measures. Whenever sub-tests of the Iowa and California tests were measuring in the same area these scores were combined for a more adequate measure. Thus the following scores were available from these two reading tests: California comprehension, Iowa comprehension, combined comprehension, combined vocabulary, combined directed reading, combined references, combined interpretation, Iowa rate (California does not provide a rate score), California total score, and Iowa total score.

Mental ages were derived from the California Test of Mental Maturity, Non-Language Section (6), and the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (4) were used to measure achievement in science.

After the standardized tests were administered, three unpublished tests developed by the author of this study were used. One of these, called *Reading for Problem Solving in Science*, is a forty-item test measuring ability to do directed reading for the

solution of problems in science. The comprehension reliability of this test with the Kuder Richardson formula is .83. The rate reliability with the split-half method and the Spearman-Brown correction was .56 for original reading time, .43 for question answering time, and .39 for total time.

This was followed by the Directed Reading of Science Materials Tests administered in twenty successive sessions during which the 23 pupils in each sixth-grade group read a science passage of from 200 to 400 words that had been drawn from *Our Wonderful World* (8) and was at that time unfamiliar to them. Group A was instructed to read each passage for the main idea while Group B was instructed to read the same passage to keep the ideas of the passage in mind in their proper sequence. Different passages were employed for the different "tests." There was a total of twenty questions to be answered by those reading for main ideas and eighty questions for those reading for ideas in sequence. Three rate scores (original reading time, rereading and question-answering time, and total time) were taken for each of the twenty "tests." The split-half reliabilities of these tests of rate and comprehension are shown in Table 2 (1).

Fifty-one advanced undergraduate and graduate students read five of the same twenty selections from the *Directed Reading of Science Materials Tests* read by the sixth graders. Twenty-eight read for Purpose A (main ideas) and twenty-three read the same five selections for Purpose B (to keep ideas in mind in sequence). The adults were checked on comprehension and speed for each passage in the same manner as the sixth graders. The difference in the treatment was that the adults responded to all five passages at a single sitting whereas the children responded to only one passage at a sitting.

TABLE 2
RELIABILITY OF SCORES ON DIRECTED READING OF SCIENCE TESTS

Measure	Mean	Standard Deviation	Coefficient of Reliability*
Type A—			
Main Idea			
Comprehension	11.70	4.29	.80
Original Rate	443.74	126.99	.97
Question Rate	119.22	40.62	.82
Total Rate	567.35	138.48	.95
Type B—			
Ideas in Sequence			
Comprehension	36.34	10.73	.90
Original Rate	462.57	159.42	.96
Question Rate	449.87	177.68	.93
Total Rate	916.78	293.54	.98

*The split-half method and the Spearman-Brown correction were used with all scores.

The adult population was deliberately chosen as a group of able readers. Most of the group were practicing elementary school teachers. A few were administrators and a few were advanced students (juniors and seniors) in a program preparatory to teaching. It may be that success in a field requiring much reading is better evidence of ability to do work-type reading than is any test now available. At any rate successful teachers and good students in teacher education programs probably can offer evidence of adequate reading skills.

As further proof of reading ability the adults scored well on the *Directed Reading of Science Materials Tests*. Their average accuracy level was 92 per cent when reading for main ideas, as contrasted with 56 per cent for sixth graders. When reading for the more difficult task of getting ideas in sequence the adult average accuracy level was 80 per cent whereas the sixth grade level was only 42 per cent. On the test of *Reading for Problem Solving in Science* the average adult accuracy level was 90 per cent and the average sixth grade level was only 63 per cent.

It is apparent then that the adult group used in this study are quite effective read-

ers. It is then altogether likely that the relationships between speed and comprehension scores exhibited by this group more nearly represent the kind of relationships that are optimum than do those of sixth-grade students.

Early in the plans for the study serious consideration was given to the question of whether it would be appropriate to use the same measures and materials with able adult readers as are used with sixth-grade students. It is likely that literature or even "story type" material from science or the social studies that would be suitable and interesting to sixth-grade students would have little appeal for educated adults. However, the descriptive science materials used were thought to be suited to adults and of interest to them. This premise was strengthened by the fact that most of the adults indicated on an anonymous questionnaire that the materials were interesting. There is little question but that the materials made realistic adult demands upon the reading skills.

Statistical Method

In order to substantiate that the two sixth-grade groups were not significantly

different from one another in chronological age, mental age, science achievement, and general reading ability, the *t* test of significance of difference between means was used (1). The values of *t* ranged from .004 to .222 indicating that the slight differences between the two groups in these characteristics could easily be explained by chance factors.

Analysis of the data was made with product moment correlations (1) between the various rate and comprehension scores. These correlations for the sixth-grade population are set forth in Table 3. For the adult population the correlations between rate and comprehension are given in Table 4.

Comparisons between sixth-grade and adult populations were based upon the rate and comprehension correlations and upon mean comprehension and rate scores.

Findings—Sixth-Grade Students

Fast readers are the best readers when rate is measured by the Iowa Silent Reading Test. In Table 3 the correlations between Iowa rate and the various comprehensions range from .39 to .82 with an average correlation of .58, significant at the one per cent level. The Iowa rate score does not correlate as strongly with the tests of science comprehension as with most of the Iowa and California tests of comprehension.

On the Reading for Problem Solving in Science Test, fast readers are not the best readers. With this type of reading there is little relationship between rate of initial reading and various measures of comprehension. The highest correlation (See Table 3) was .29 with combined interpretation and the lowest was $-.09$ with combined references. Although most of these show a low positive relationship between rate of reading and comprehension, all of them

are low enough to be explained by chance factors.

Those who read rapidly during a single reading of the Directed Reading of Science Materials Tests also comprehend well on tests of general reading abilities. These correlations (See Table 3) were generally significant ones for both the group reading for the main idea and for the group reading for a sequence of ideas. There are, however, notable exceptions for each group. The rapid readers for main ideas are not those who comprehend well when Reading for Problem Solving in Science where a low negative correlation was found. It is also interesting to note that the correlation between speed of reading science materials and comprehension in general reading abilities as measured by the Iowa and California tests is higher than is the correlation between speed and comprehension when reading the science materials for main ideas (.29).

Exceptions to the generality that those who read rapidly during a single reading of science materials for the purpose of keeping a series of ideas in mind in proper sequence are also those who comprehend well on tests of general reading abilities are found with two of the general reading abilities. Positive correlations but low enough to be explained by chance factors are found with the factors of use of references and following directions. Thus those who read science materials rapidly for sequence are not necessarily those who use references and follow directions well. It is rather strange to find a positive correlation at all between any measure of rate of reading and these somewhat meticulous types of reading comprehension, and, at least for use of references, the correlations with rate do tend to be generally low. However, comprehension of combined directions correlates well with

original rate of reading on the Iowa test and on the Directed Reading of Science Tests for main ideas.

It is also interesting to note that the fast readers are not the best readers when both speed and comprehension are measured on the Directed Reading of Science Tests for sequence of ideas. This correlation (.06) is so low that one can say that there is no relationship between rate and comprehension for this relatively difficult reading task.

For both Directed Reading of Science Tests the correlations between original reading rate and the various comprehension measures average in the upper forties (significant at the five per cent level). The average correlation between original reading rate on the Reading for Problem Solving in Science Test and the various measures of comprehension was positive but low (.18) enough to be possibly explained by chance factors.

In view of the generally strong correlations between each of the measures of initial reading time and most of the various measures of general reading comprehension, it is interesting to note that this same result is not found between comprehension scores and time taken to reread and answer questions. Invariably the correlations are low or negative between comprehension and rate of question answering, which includes rereading. In other words those who read general reading test materials rapidly on a first reading also read well, but those who reread and answer questions rapidly are not necessarily those who read well. These correlations between comprehension and rereading and question-answering time ranged from $+.24$ to $-.28$ with average correlations for the three measures (See Table 3) of $+.09$, $+.08$, and $-.05$.

The total rate score is a combination of the original reading rate and the question-

answering rate, and it really is not as meaningful as is either of the two scores from which it was derived. However, the correlations between the various comprehension measures and the total rate scores were as high as $+.57$ between the Iowa comprehension test and the Purpose A (main ideas) total rate scores and as low as $-.25$ between comprehension and total rate on the Purpose B (sequence) test. The average correlation was not significant at the five per cent level with any of the three tests deriving a total rate score.

Findings—Adults and Children Compared

The reader will recall that while the correlations between rates of original reading and comprehension of general reading abilities in the sixth-grade group were generally high, this was not true between rate and comprehension with the measures of the reading of science. While data for adults was not available regarding general reading abilities, it was possible to relate speed and comprehension measures for each of the three measures of the reading of science materials. Each of these correlations (See Table 4) was low—generally somewhat lower than it was with the children. Fast readers, even among adults, are not the best readers when reading scientific materials to solve a problem, to get the main idea, or to keep a series of ideas in mind in sequence.

A case was made earlier for regarding the fifty-one adult readers as a select group of fairly efficient readers on the basis of their professional and academic accomplishments as well as on the basis of their comprehension scores on the Directed Reading of Science and Reading for Problem Solving in Science Tests. How then do these relatively efficient readers differ from the sixth graders? It would seem that the efficient reader would adjust his rate downward, shift gears so to speak, when

TABLE 4
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN
MEASURES OF ADULT READING RATE AND COMPREHENSION*

Rate Measures	Comprehension Measures		
	Directed Rdg. Sci. Main Ideas	Directed Rdg. Sci. Sequence	Reading for Problem Solving in Science
Directed Reading of Science Main Ideas [†]			
Orig. Rate	.03		
Ques. Rate	.10		
Total Rate	.07		
Directed Reading of Science Sequence [‡]			
Orig. Rate		.04	
Ques. Rate		-.13	
Total Rate		-.09	
Reading for Problem Solving in Science [§]			
Orig. Rate			.26
Ques. Rate			.14
Total Rate			.23

*The sign of all correlations have been changed. No sign indicates a positive correlation between speed of reading and comprehension.

[†]N equals 28

[‡]N equals 23

[§]N equals 19

he was dealing with either more difficult materials or a more demanding purpose. Did the adults slow down for the more demanding tasks? Did the children?

Comparing the average comprehension score of the sixth-graders with that of the adults (See Table 5) the children scored 8.35 to the adults 15.91 (52 per cent as well) on the Purpose B (sequence) task. On the other hand the children scored 2.78 to the adults 4.60 (60 per cent as well) on the Purpose A task, and did 70 per cent as well on the RPSS (Reading for Problem Solving in Science) Test. Using these relative comprehension percentages as an index of difficulty the Purpose B task was most difficult, then Purpose A, and the RPSS Test was the least difficult.

Looking at the Original Rate—Words Per Minute column of Table 5, it is apparent

that both groups slowed their rate somewhat for the more demanding tasks. The adults read the relatively easy RPSS Test at 291 words per minute. They slowed for Purpose A to 213 w.p.m., and for the more difficult Purpose B they read at only 182 w.p.m. The sixth graders also slowed somewhat as the materials became more demanding. They read the relatively easy RPSS Test at 153 w.p.m., for Purpose A at 138 w.p.m. and for the more difficult Purpose B at 137 w.p.m. But note the difference. Where the adults slowed 78 words per minute between RPSS Test materials and Purpose A and slowed another 31 words per minute between Purpose A and Purpose B, the children slowed only 14 w.p.m. between RPSS and Purpose A and only 1 w.p.m. between Purpose A and Purpose B. Even taking into account the

TABLE 5
MEAN COMPREHENSION SCORES AND READING RATES
FOR ADULT AND SIXTH GRADE TESTEES*

Group	Compre- hension	Original Rate	Original Rate—WPM	Question Rate	Total Rate
Adult—Purpose A	4.60	73.28	213.15	32.25	105.53
Sixth—Purpose A	2.78	113.04	138.00	37.21	150.25
Adult—Purpose B	15.91	85.56	182.35	126.13	211.69
Sixth—Purpose B	8.35	114.17	136.62	128.30	242.47
Adult—Reading for Prob. Solv. Sci.	35.89	60.63	291.48	207.74	268.37
Sixth—Reading for Prob. Solv. Sci.	25.10	115.58	152.85	267.54	383.13

*Except for Original Rate—WPM (words per minute) the rate scores are in terms of number of five second intervals. Adult and sixth-grade scores are based upon the five passages read by both age groups.

fact that the children were reading more slowly and therefore each word per minute slower is a larger percentage of their actual rate, it is readily apparent that the adults are adjusting their rate to the difficulty of the task much more than are the children.

One way of noting this flexibility of rate on the part of the adults is that they read for Purpose A only 73 per cent as rapidly as they read the RPSS Test, and they read for Purpose B only 86 per cent as rapidly as they read for Purpose A. The children, on the other hand, read for Purpose A 86 per cent as rapidly as they read the RPSS Test, and they read for Purpose B 99 per cent as rapidly as they read for Purpose A.

Another way of noting the increased flexibility of reading rate among the adults is by comparing the average reading time for adults and sixth-graders on each of the three reading tasks. The children read the relatively easy RPSS Test materials only 52 per cent as rapidly as did adults. However, they read for the more difficult Purpose A at 65 per cent of the adult rate and for the most demanding Purpose B, they are reading at 75 per cent of the adult rate. It is likely that this trend to read relatively

more rapidly as the task becomes more demanding should be reversed for most efficient sixth-grade reading.

This pattern of less difference between child and adult rates with relatively difficult materials than with relatively easy materials is even more obvious with rereading and question answering time than it is with rate of original reading. The children answered the relatively easy RPSS Test questions 78 per cent as rapidly as did the adults, but they answered the more difficult Purpose A materials at 87 per cent of the adult rate and they went through the most difficult Purpose B materials at 98 per cent of the adult rate. The adults are markedly adjusting their rate to the requirements of the task—slowing down and rereading when it is needed—whereas the children are making relatively minor rate adjustments as the reading demands increase.

Conclusions

1. Fast readers are the good readers when reading some kinds of materials for some purposes. When reading other kinds of materials for other purposes there is no relationship between speed of reading and

ability to comprehend. In general the fast readers are the good readers on the reading tasks presented in the standardized tests of general reading ability. There is no relationship between speed of reading and comprehension for either sixth-grade children or well-educated adults when reading scientific materials for the purpose of solving a problem, getting the main idea, or for keeping a series of ideas in mind in sequence.

2. When either adults or sixth-grade children read the same materials for two different purposes and when the purpose for reading is set for the reader in advance of the reading, the purpose for reading influences the speed with which the reading is done. This finding is supported in Roossinck's study (3) of the reading of scientists and sixth-grade children.

3. There is no relationship for either adults or sixth-grade students between comprehension and rate of the work-study reading involved in responding to the comprehension questions. In other words those who work rapidly on the rereading and question answering are not necessarily the best readers.

4. Efficient adult readers are much more flexible in adjusting reading rate to the demands of the task than are sixth-grade students. In comparison to the adults, the children read relatively more rapidly as the task becomes more demanding with a consequent loss in relative comprehension. The efficient adult slows his rate and rereads as necessary in keeping with the demands of the task. Sixth-grade students need to develop this type of rate flexibility.

5. Inasmuch as there are different relationships between rate and comprehension

when rate is measured as an original reading time and when rate is measured to include rereading and question-answering time, it is important to define what is meant by reading rate. This finding also suggests that authorities in the field of reading would do well to attempt to standardize a practice for measuring reading rate. Since rereading and reorganizing what is read is both necessary and time consuming when reading for some purposes, the most meaningful measure of rate would be one which offered both an original reading time and a time for rereading and answering questions. The total time, which is a sum of these two, destroys some of the specificity of the composite parts and is useful only as an indication of the total amount of time taken to complete a work-study reading task.

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Pupils' Interests in Reading

The purpose of this report is to determine the interest areas in reading in the sixth grade age group. The report also shows their other interests in life such as their hobbies, their hopes for the future, their likes and dislikes about school, and their work and activities involved in school life.

There are 28 reports in this study. The class is almost evenly divided into boys and girls.

This group is one of the six sixth grades in the J. W. Eater Junior High School, Rantoul, Illinois. In addition, this group is a part of the departmental grouping in the school. During a period of a week, the children in this group are in classes (instructed by nine different teachers) including music, band, library, physical education (boys and girls separated), social studies, spelling, reading, English. I teach the art, science, and arithmetic to the group. The children have nine forty minute periods a day including study periods and a forty minute lunch hour. About half of the group eats in the cafeteria, while the others eat at nearby cafes or go to their homes.

Two children are a year younger than regular sixth grade students. One started school at the age of five years, and the other skipped half of second grade. There are two pupils who have repeated a grade. Three or four in the group are poor readers.

Some of the children live on the Air Force base, and some live here in town. There are some of the group who live in

trailers. Nearly all of the children have television sets in their homes.

There are 18 children from military families, one child from the home of a civilian employee, two children from farm families, and six children whose fathers have other types of employment in the community.

Ten of the children have lived in a foreign country. They have lived in Mexico, Japan, England, Germany, France, Guam, and the Philippine Islands. These children have added much interest to class discussions in science, reading, and social studies by telling of their experiences in foreign lands and by bringing in their collections and souvenirs for displays and exhibits.

Table I
BIRTHPLACE OF EACH PUPIL

<i>State</i>	<i>City</i>	<i>No. of Pupils</i>
1. California	Palm Springs	1
2. California	Sacramento	1
3. Colorado	Denver	1
4. England	Halstead, Essex	1
5. Georgia	Macon	1
6. Illinois	Bloomington	1
7. Illinois	Chicago	1
8. Illinois	Paris	1
9. Illinois	Paxton	1
10. Illinois	Rantoul	4
11. Indiana	Petersburg	1
12. Kentucky	Louisville	1
13. Kentucky	Russell Springs	1
14. Michigan	Detroit	2
15. Michigan	Garden City	1
16. Michigan	Roscommon	1
17. New York	Louisville	1
18. Oregon	Eugene	1
19. Tennessee	Knoxville	1
20. Texas	Denison	1
21. Texas	San Angelo	1
22. Vermont	Burlington	1
23. Washington	Spokane	1
24. Wisconsin	Menomonie	1

Miss Skelton is a teacher in the J. W. Eater Junior High School, Rantoul, Illinois.

Table II

TABULATION OF PUPILS' INTERESTS

The 28 pupils surveyed in this report attended several different schools. The numbers indicate the number of schools including the Rantoul City Schools that each pupil attended.

<i>Number of schools</i>	<i>Number of pupils</i>
15 — — — — —	1
10 — — — — —	2
8 — — — — —	2
7 — — — — —	1
6 — — — — —	3
5 — — — — —	1
4 — — — — —	2
3 — — — — —	4
2 — — — — —	8
1 — — — — —	4
	28

Table III

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Dislike</i>	<i>1st Choice</i>	<i>2nd Choice</i>	<i>3rd Choice</i>
Art	0	1	0	2
Physical Education	0	10	1	1
Library	0	0	0	1
Science	0	0	1	1
Band	0	1	0	0
Health	1	0	0	0
Writing	1	0	0	0
Reading	1	3	4	4
Music	1	2	6	3
Spelling	2	5	3	4
English	2	1	1	7
Social Studies	3	5	5	2
Arithmetic	6	0	6	2

Eleven children listed no dislike for any subject.

Table IV

The numbers indicate the number of times the various activities were chosen.

Play Games	12
Read	11
Study	8
Draw Pictures	5
Music	4
Play Basketball	3
Dance	2
Play Football	2
Play Records	2
Sing	2
Take a Nap	1
Talk	1
Make Model Airplanes	1
Play Volley Ball	1
Play the Radio	1
Play Baseball	1
Play the Piano	1
Paint	1

Table V

The numbers indicate the number of children who like reading in the various degrees mentioned.

Very much	15
Quite a lot	6
Just above average	4
Not very much	2
Not at all	1

Apart from school lessons, about how many hours a week do you spend reading books?

The class estimated their total reading hours a week apart from school lessons and in reading books to be 148 hours.

6 hours average per child per week.

Range of none to 16 hours per week.

Apart from school lessons, about how many hours a week do you spend reading other things than books?

The children estimated that they read 95 hours a week.

3.4 hours is the average per child per week.

Range is none to 20 hours per week.

According to our recent achievement test nearly all the members of the class made average or high scores in reading. There were only two or three who made low scores.

In their reading and library classes the children have recorded the names of books read in a reading design. There are areas of science, fiction, social science and art, and other areas of study. They checked out books from our own central library, the public library, the room library, and the library on Chanute Air Force Base; they also exchanged books with each other.

In this survey they listed only 45 books that they had read, but I am sure that they had read many more than that.

They read many mystery books, sports' books, and books about science. One boy who is rather a poor reader had read no library books.

Table VI

Do you like school?

Quite a lot	9
Just above average	7
Very much	4
Not very much	4
Not at all	4

Item X

The numbers indicate the appearance of newspapers in the home.

Every day	26
Only now and then	2
Only on Sunday	0

Items XI and XII

Favorite Magazines Read Regularly

Name of Magazine	Times Chosen	1st Choice	2nd Choice	3rd Choice
Saturday Evening Post	13	4	3	1
Life	10	1	2	0
Boy's Life	7	3	1	1
Reader's Digest	4	0	0	0
Collier's	4	2	0	0
Seventeen	4	2	0	1
Look	3	1	1	0
Jack and Jill	3	0	0	0
Sports	3	2	1	0
American Girl	3	0	3	0
Children's Digest	2	1	0	1
Sports Afield	2	1	1	0
Time	2	1	0	0
McCall's	2	0	0	0
American	2	0	0	1
Teen Age	1	0	1	0
Field and Stream	1	0	0	1
Popular Mechanics	1	0	0	0
Better Homes and Gardens	1	0	0	0
Sunset	1	0	0	1
Air Force Times	1	1	0	0
Pageant	1	0	1	0
Popular Science	1	0	1	0
Outdoor Life	1	1	0	1
National Geographic	1	0	1	0
Science and Fiction	1	1	0	0
Holiday	1	0	0	0
Child Life	1	1	0	0
True	1	0	1	0
Classic	1	0	0	1
Song Hits	1	1	0	0
Redbook	1	0	0	0
Record Whirl	1	0	0	1
Coronet	1	0	0	0
Baseball Yearbook	1	0	0	0
Ideals	1	0	0	1
Sports Life	1	0	0	1

Item XIII

What things have you done outside of school the past two weeks because you wanted to do them?

The numbers indicate the number of times each activity was chosen.

Played Baseball	6
Played Games with Friends	6
Helped Mother	5
Went to Movies	4
Watched Television	3
Camped Out	3
Went Fishing	3
Skated	3
Went Hiking	3
Planted Flowers or Vegetables	3
Danced	2
Played Basketball	2
Cut Grass and Watered It	2
Read	2
Raked Yard	2
Repaired Bicycle	2
Rode Bicycle	2
Gathered Eggs	2
Baby Sitting	1
Helped Neighbor Move In	1
Went Swimming	1
Studied Lessons	1
Built Dog House	1
Repaired a Stool	1
Cared for a Dog	1
Visited with Friends	1
Played with a Dog	1
Baked Cookies	1
Went to Girl Scout Meeting	1
Played Cornet	1
Cared for Rabbits	1
Built a Fort	1
Flew a Kite	1
Played Marbles	1
Went on a Picnic	1
Pitched a Tent	1

Item XIV

This list indicates the various things that the children liked about school.

Physical education	15	Work	2
Music	12	The subjects	2
Teachers	8	Arithmetic	2
Recess	8	Chance for an education	1
Movies	7	Lockers	1
Art	7	Dismissal time	1
Band	5	Departmental classes	1
Reading	5	Activity period	1
Cafeteria	4	Most everything	1
Spelling	4	Flowers in our room	1
Library	3	Help care for flowers	1
My friends	2	Noon	1
Social studies	2	Parties	1

Item XV

The following is a list of things that the children disliked about school.

Nothing	8
Arithmetic	6
Spelling	6
Some teachers	5
Short recess	4
English	4
Science and health	3
Study hall	2
Reading	2
The food	2
The books	2
Small desks	2
Physical education	1
Short lunch period	1
Not enough time	1
School	1
Having to wait for dismissal at table	1
Writing	1
Too strict	1
No stamp club	1
Social Studies	1
Tests	1

Item XVI

Who is your favorite hero?

None	7	Superman	1
Pat Boone	3	Tarzan	1
Roy Rogers	2	Cheyenne Kid	1
Ted Williams	1	Jim Thorpe	1
Benny Goodman	1	Billy the Kid	1
Simon Bolivar	1	Buffalo Bill Jr.	1
Tony Curtis	1	Dick West	1

Item XVII

What would you like to be when you grow up?

Teacher	4	Foreign missionary	1
Get married	2	Sailor	1
Play in a dance band	2	Work in a store	1
Nurse	2	Astronomer	1
Air pilot	2	Policewoman	1
Secretary	2	Own a restaurant	1
Professional baseball player	2	Engineer	1
Scout master	1	Rancher	1
Dancer	1	Policeman	1
Pianist	1	Architect	1
		Farmer	1
		In Air Force	1

Item XVIII

Hobbies.

Stamp collecting	3	Work in yard	1
Doll collections	2	Embroidery	1
Model airplanes	2	Weaving	1
Collect rocks	2	Nature Study	1
Camping out	1	Music	1
Dancing	1	Shell collections	1

Astronomy	1	Movie star pictures	1
Painting	1	Collect marbles	1
Collect guns	1		

Item XIX

What would you like to do when you leave high school?

Go to college	12	Horse trainer	1
Get married	3	Policeman	1
Air Force	2	Business school	1
Work	2	Architect	1
Secretary	2	Missionary school	1
Nurses training	2	Airline hostess	1
Travel	1	Camp out	1
Country home	1		

Summary of Pupils' Interests

Only four of these pupils have attended this school only. Two of them come in from a rural district four miles out of town. All of these children have paid the book rental for the year. None of the families expect free lunches. There seems to be little or no evidence of economic stress or strain, except with the farm family. Many of the children have plenty of spending money. All are clean and well-dressed. All are living with both parents with the exception of one girl whose father died when she was four years old.

The attitude toward school life in general is good. Many had no particular dislikes in their daily routine at school. Physical education seemed to be the best liked of the school subjects.

If allowed free time, several would like to spend their time in study, reading, or catching up on their lessons. There didn't seem to be much interest in television or in comic books.

The children in the group seemed to have access to a wide variety of magazines and newspapers. There was little interest in heroes. The group had a fair amount of interest in hobbies.

They seem to have their minds made up concerning their futures. I was surprised

(Continued on page 263)

Teaching of English In the Mass Media

With the increasing use of mass media, particularly television, for instruction in English, it is essential that the research on such use be reviewed and evaluated as a guide for teachers and researchers in the area. Because the bulk of the recent research has been concerned with television, the focus will be upon research in this medium.

Until the advent of television, instructors in colleges and universities were distinguished in this field primarily by their reluctance to use any of the mass media in their classes. The rapidly rising enrollments which accompanied the maturation of television, coupled with the lure of research money from the Fund for the Advancement of Education and the U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, has caused this situation to change. For example, since 1954 the television medium has been utilized for formal campus instruction in English composition at San Francisco State College (26), Purdue University (23), New York University (14), and the State University of Iowa (2). English literature has been taught via television at New York University (20), Los Angeles City and Valley Colleges (12), and the State University of Iowa (3). Courses in speech have been taught wholly or in part by television at Pennsylvania State University (16), the State University of Iowa (3), the University of Illinois (8), the University of Cali-

fornia at Los Angeles (4), Wayne State University (11), Los Angeles City and Valley Colleges (12), and the University of South Dakota (24). Innumerable colleges and universities have telecast such courses to the general public.

Television programs specifically produced for English or speech instruction in the public schools have been tried in Evanston (Illinois) (6), Schenectady (New York) (1), St. Louis (13), Dade County (Florida) (10), Washington County (Maryland) (9), Lincoln (Nebraska) (15:62-65), Detroit (15), San Diego (25), New York (21), Philadelphia (22), Norfolk (Virginia) (17), Southwestern Indiana (27), and Oklahoma City (18). These, of course, are only a sample.

There are many ways in which we could categorize the research which has been done on the above in-school uses of television. Because the most fruitful research in the long run tends to be that which focuses upon important educational goals, we will examine recent research according to what it tells us of the ability of the television medium to contribute to the attainment of some of the major goals of English instruction.

Reading

In the area of reading, the research evidence indicates no consistent differences between television-aided instruction and conventional instruction for either secondary school or college students. Scores on a literature test for students taking a television-correspondence course in twelfth grade English in Nebraska did not differ significantly from scores for students taking

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the course in conventional fashion. However, significant differences were found favoring non-television students on a Mechanics of English test and an English Comprehension test (15). In Washington County, Maryland, where reading was taught to elementary students in the first through the third grades with the aid of television, the children *reported* that television helped them to learn better (9:17-18). At Evanston, Illinois, where television-supplemented instruction in English-speech was given to tenth grade students, the researchers reported that test scores of the experimental students on ability to read and interpret a short story were "about like the scores of a group of students with comparable I.Q. scores in regular English classes" (6:20). The State University of Iowa found no significant differences in the reading rate and comprehension of freshmen taught Communication Skills in part by television recordings and those taught in more conventional ways (2:14). Oklahoma City reported no significant differences between television and control students in American Literature classes on comprehension and appreciation or interpretation of literary materials (19:10). When Modern Literature was taught in part by television to college students at Iowa, no significant differences in learning were found when the television students were compared with either small discussion sections or with combination lecture-discussion sections of the course. The criterion measure was an essay examination on the knowledge and understanding of literature (3:20-21). New York University found no significant difference in the literary comprehension of students taught English partly via television and those taught in conventionally small groups (14:18). In an early study in which The Literature of England was taught in part by television at New York University, the tentative conclusion from a

comparison of course grades was that "the A and B students profited about equally from the two kinds of learning situations; that the average and poorer students . . . may have learned better (from the televised instruction)" (20:26). Los Angeles and Valley Colleges found no significant differences between students who received Introduction to Literature instruction by television and those who received it in other ways (12:12-13).

No television studies were found which compared groups on the basis of skill in outlining, literary appreciation, or acquisition of criteria for evaluating literature or public address.

Listening

Instructional television research which seemed to consider listening as a course goal was even more sparse. At Evanston, it was found that the scores of television students on the STEP Tests of Ability to Listen were not significantly different than for other English students with comparable I.Q. scores (6:20). It was also reported that television did not "prevent the growth of a wide range of interests in the activities of the course" at Evanston. These activities included literature, theatre, and the media. This interest was checked by means of questionnaires and attendance at plays (6:21). At Detroit, it was found that students who had received instruction in American Literature by means of television scored significantly higher on a listening test than did those who received their literature instruction in a more conventional manner (15:49). With freshman Communication Skills students, Iowa found no significant differences between television-kinescope students and control students on gain in listening ability (2:14). In Dade County, Florida, senior high school students indicated that note-taking was more difficult at first and they had to listen

more intently in television courses than in other courses (10:45-46).

None of the reported television studies indicate a concern with student gain in comprehension or appreciation of dramatic forms, or in acquisition of criteria for evaluating what is heard.

Speaking

Five studies were found which were concerned with systematically testing the effects of teaching speech-making by television. At Evanston, television students made "generally adequate progress in the . . . ability to speak effectively" and "liking" for and "self-confidence in doing so." However, the television students were more often rated lower "in aspects of speaking related to content and thinking" (6:20-21). At Pennsylvania State University it was found that "there was little difference" between the grades earned by students receiving part of their basic speech course instruction by television and those receiving all of it in conventional ways (16:4). At Los Angeles and Valley Colleges, where experimental students in Public Speaking and Voice and Diction received one-third of their classroom instruction by television, no significant differences were found in the speech tests of these and students receiving all of their instruction in regular classes (12:12-13). At Iowa, no significant differences were found in speech ratings between students receiving the principles of communication from television recordings and those receiving comparable material from their regular classroom instructors or from readings (2:14). A somewhat unique use of television for speech instruction was tried at the University of California at Los Angeles. In an effort to improve physical delivery, each student was permitted to view himself on a television monitor while delivering three speeches. The researchers reported that "the TV monitor as employed

did not lead to greater than normal progress in skills of physical delivery" (4:128).

No studies involving the use of television for speech instruction have reported an evaluation of student achievement in recognizing the social and psychological factors involved in communicating with people of different backgrounds, or in knowledge or practice of discussion with its accompanying interpersonal problems. However, in regard to the latter, the researchers at Hagerstown have reported some pertinent findings from non-speech courses taught by television to sixth and eighth graders.

A preliminary investigation of group structure was made using sociometric techniques in sixth and eighth grade classes in television and non-television schools. The study revealed that group structure seems to change with television resulting in fewer "isolates" . . . (The) type, frequency, and direction of participation seems to change in the television classroom. The traditional pattern of teacher-student participation, in which the classroom teacher asks questions or gives directions and the pupils respond is altered. The teacher on the television screen seems to upset this pattern. The students respond to him and then project or transfer their discussion to other students in the classroom and a natural give-and-take situation is encouraged. Some students who took little part in classroom activities prior to the introduction of television were now taking an active part in the discussions that followed the telecasts (9:18).

Writing

More research appears to have been done on the teaching of writing by means of television than the teaching of any of the other skills of communication. Experiments have been reported on three college and two high school courses in which at least one of the goals was the teaching of Eng-

lish composition. Results of an experiment with a composition course at Purdue University indicated that conventionally taught students tended to achieve slightly better ratings on their test themes than students who received two-thirds of their instruction by television. The results, however, were not consistent nor was a consistent pattern found between level of student ability (as assessed by the freshman orientation English test) and achievement in theme writing (23:12-17). At New York University, where the experimental students received three-fifths of their English composition instruction via television, inconsistent results were again obtained. When student achievement in theme writing was tested for each of three levels of initial theme writing ability, it appeared that television instruction may have been somewhat more effective for the low ability students while conventional instruction may have been more effective for the high ability students (14:16-17). This is in contradiction to some educational research which seems to indicate that, if method of instruction makes a difference, it is usually for the low ability students (and not for those of high ability). In the Iowa experiment, in which somewhat less than one-fourth of the instruction in Communication Skills was by means of television recordings, no consistent differences were found between the television and non-television students in achievement in theme writing. Neither was a significant interaction found which would indicate that students of differing academic ability were affected differently by the various means of instruction (2:14-15). In the English-speech course taught partially by television at Evanston, students made "at least as high marks" on written composition tests as non-television students in the preceding year, "and at least as high and perhaps higher marks than might have been ex-

pected on the basis of I.Q. scores" (6:19-20). Television students appeared to do somewhat more poorly than other tenth grade English students on the Mechanics of Expression test in Oklahoma City (19:11). No significant difference on the language arts examination was found between television and non-television students in Philadelphia (22:21). Only one published report was found by this writer of a controlled experiment on the teaching of English by television in which no supplementary instruction was carried on in the school. Ninth-grade English composition was telecast to two St. Louis public schools for thirty minutes a day, five days a week for one semester. There were 122 students viewing the broadcasts as a group in one school, 146 in the other. "One experienced teacher was in each room to receive assignments and meet any unforeseen occurrences—but not to teach in the usual sense of the word. She was assisted by a college graduate who was not a professional teacher." In addition, classes of 70 and 98 second-grade students viewed lessons in spelling for twenty minutes a day, five days a week, over a period of two semesters. Again an experienced teacher was in charge of each of the two rooms but did not teach. In English composition, "there was a suggestion that they (the television students) made slightly greater gains." In second-grade spelling, the television and the conventionally taught students "did equally well in a test of second-grade words, but when they were tested on words considered above the usual second-grade level, the conventionally taught students did better than those in the experiment" (26:34-35).

None of the television research on writing instruction appears to have included a consideration of such criteria as the ability to evaluate one's own work, motivation to write, or what might be called "writing

fright" (the counterpart of speech fright and probably at least as important a hindrance to effective communication).

Limitations of Existing Research

Let us summarize the weaknesses in the existing research on utilizing television in English instruction.

In no case was there sufficient control to enable effects to be attributed to a single cause and thus to be repeatable at will. There consistently have been more differences between the experimental groups and control groups in these studies than simply the presence or absence of television. There appears to be only one published report of a controlled experiment in which the televised instruction was not supplemented by more conventional classroom instruction, and the classroom supplementation of the electronic presentations has been different from the activity going on in the control classrooms at comparable times. Admittedly, optimum instruction by television involves a complex of factors but, in the experimental stage when we are trying to learn as much as possible about these phenomena, the wisdom of confounding these factors is questionable. Confounding the effects of the medium with the effects of supplementary activity makes it virtually impossible to determine what the effect of television per se has been. Also, because of this, where contradictory research results have been obtained, there is little chance to find the probable reasons for the differences.

Related to the failure to isolate variables has been the failure to repeat studies with comparable goals, students, and procedures. We are dealing with laws of probability in the social sciences and it is only through duplication of experiments that we are able to increase the precision of these laws. The fact that there has been *one* in-

stance in which college freshmen were able to recall the principles of communication better or learned to write themes better when they received the principles of such communication from listening to a classroom teacher or when they received them from viewing a television presentation does not permit us to generalize with confidence about the relative merits of these media for communicating, even to college freshmen. One of the axioms which we learn early in experimentation is that anything can happen *once*. Until studies are repeated, we have little chance of developing laws for this type of classroom learning.

We have no evidence yet of the effect of television instruction over a long period of time, after a student has been receiving part of his instruction in this way over a four or five year period or longer and any novelty effect has been dissipated. Presumably, some evidence on this point will be forthcoming soon from Pennsylvania State University where a large number of courses have been taught by television since 1954 (7) and from the five year study in Washington County, Maryland (9). There is some evidence scattered through the literature that students must learn to learn from television, that teachers must learn to teach by television, and that student attitudes toward televised instruction become more favorable with experience in receiving instruction in this way. All of these would seem to indicate that learning may increase proportionately with time. Whether these differences would be great enough to overcome loss of the novelty effect or whether these differences truly will be found to exist when they are isolated and examined systematically is not known at this time.

In the studies which have employed criterion measures other than simple retention tests, the kinds of measuring instru-

ments used tend to be unreliable. This makes it extremely difficult to obtain statistically significant differences between groups, even when there may truly be such differences. For example, methodological studies have consistently shown low reliability for theme and speech ratings except in those cases where an impractical number of raters was used or where the raters were given lengthy training in rating the specific phenomenon. This may well account for some of the many "no significant differences" found in instructional television studies. To improve our research in this area we must obtain more precise measurement, which means better measuring instruments and procedures.

Another important weakness of the research which has been concerned with using television for teaching English is that some of the major goals of such instruction apparently have been ignored in the evaluations. The requirements for meaningful research in instructional television are the same as the requirements for almost any sound educational research. One must begin with course goals, plan experimental conditions which one believes will best meet these goals, and then test whether these specific goals were obtained. Too often, a decision has been made simply to use television or, having television, to use it in some particular way. We plan our procedures and content for the course and then start to worry about how to test the effect of the procedures or the retention of the content. It seems a wasteful procedure to worry about whether students can be taught some sort of behavior better via television than via some other medium until we have some knowledge, or at least some testable hypotheses, about the way such behaviors are learned.

None of the above is meant to be a condemnation of recent research in instruc-

tional television. These investigations have contributed to our knowledge of learning and can contribute much more. The weaknesses of this research have been the weaknesses of the bulk of educational research. Television is an excellent means for observing what goes on in the classroom. It may prove to be the only means by which some of the more basic issues may be studied.

Suggestions for Future Research

So where do we go from here? What kinds of research most need doing? What kinds will be most helpful to us in understanding the ways in which television can be useful in English instruction? What kinds can help us learn to teach better? Classroom research conducted by the regular teacher is highly important at this point, because a great deal of the needed research in teaching English by television can probably be *best* done by the classroom teacher. Important contributions can be made in this area without large research teams or vast experience in research. One should have, however, a familiarity with the research which has been done, both on the teaching of English and on utilization of the media for instruction. One should also be able to describe accurately the conditions under which the experiment was done so that other teachers or researchers can duplicate the instruction or experiment and expect to come up with the same results. Most important, and generally most difficult, one should be able to approach the research with objectivity, a willingness to search for all of the facts and to accept them when they are found.

One of the kinds of research which can often best be done by teachers in the field is the duplication of experiments done in only one or two school systems. Until some of the teaching methods which have been

tried in one or two places are experimented with in many places, by many different teachers, with various kinds of students, and various kinds of school situations, we will have little idea of the applicability of the present findings.

Classroom teachers can also make important contributions to our knowledge of motivating students in English. If there is virtue in any usage of the television medium for instructional purposes, its use for motivational purposes would appear to be foremost. The professional researcher is well aware that learning and memory are dependent in part upon motivation. The question of the *specific kinds* of experience which will encourage students to write or speak better, or to read better books, can probably best come from the classroom teacher who has been faced with the problem of motivating various kinds of students and who has, in most cases, tried many types of procedures for this purpose and observed the results. Television provides an opportunity to try additional procedures or, possibly, to make some of the procedures tried in the classroom more effective.

Another kind of media research which often can grow out of the experiences of the classroom teacher is that which focuses upon the attitudes, skills, or knowledge which children have trouble getting from books or the usual classroom work. A knowledge of these problem areas, coupled with a knowledge of media research, should make it possible to come up with hypotheses about ways in which television or the other media can help to solve the problem. Once such hypotheses are developed and put in operational terms, the most important and difficult part of the research is done.

Though there has been a great deal of research comparing "conventional" (whatever that means) to "televised" instruction, little

attention has been given to the problem of the best way to use television, or any of the other media, once the decision is made that there is something to be gained by media use. In spite of the impression one might get from reading the research literature, television is not a *method* of instruction, it is a *medium* capable of transmitting and being used with many different methods. An infinite number of studies need to be done to compare various methods of using television. Not only must various content and techniques of programming be studied, but various methods of integrating the televised material with other work in the classroom must be compared.

Whichever of these problems you decide to attack, start with some specific educational goals. Do not think in terms of the content of a course or courses. Decide what it is that the student should be able to do and know at the end of the year which he does not now. Try to make these goals as specific as possible. For example, do not say that the student should be able to appreciate literature. This cliché of the profession has little meaning to the teacher who wants to know what to teach or how to teach it and little meaning to the researcher who wants to find out whether it has been learned. Goals must be defined in terms of observable behavior. For example, you might decide that "appreciation of literature" means in part that, given a choice, a student will read T. S. Eliot instead of Bret Harte, or perhaps vice versa. Or you might mean that a student will voluntarily start reading more books, without their being assigned in school. Or you might mean that a student can indicate some of the basic insights of the authors whose works he reads. These are not necessarily good definitions of "appreciation of literature," but they are descriptions of behavior which can be observed objectively. Ob-

jectivity means, in this case, stating goals and measures as descriptions of behavior that can be counted or observed by any observer.

Once this is done, think of all of the experiences which may help students to reach the goals. Consider at this point not only what you have done in the past, or what has been done by others, but every possible experience which might be carried out in an ideal situation. It would appear that our educational systems will be undergoing dramatic changes in the next few decades. What seems completely impossible at this point may be quite practical within a very short time. In other words, this is the stage at which the most imaginative thinking needs to be done. There are many standard methods for teaching each aspect of English. On the other hand, it is almost certain that these standard methods do not exhaust the field, that there are methods as yet unthought of or, at least, untried.

Along with the experiences which may help students to reach the outlined goals, you must consider, obviously, the course content.

Once the goals, content, and methods are defined, you have the information needed to plan your experiment intelligently. For example, you will be able to see which methods cannot be carried out with conventional classroom instruction and which might be done with one or more of the media. You will be able to see which types of content are difficult to learn under present classroom conditions and how some of the media could be helpful. You will be able to see which goals are not now being adequately met and which may be if approached differently. I have explained elsewhere (5:23-29) a technique for making this analysis. The technique is essentially the formation of a three dimensional diagram with goals along one dimension,

content along another, and methods along the third. Such a structure helps not only to solve the problems above but is an aid in devising measuring instruments for it permits the researcher to "see" what content and method combinations are to achieve each goal.

Worry little or not at all about "controls" or statistics. The suggested purpose is to explore combinations of methods utilizing the vast wealth of mass media with which we are surrounded. This may mean bringing the media into the classroom, or it may mean supplementing your teaching with outside assignments. It means, at any rate, that we keep ourselves aware, week to week and day by day, of the fare available, and furthermore, that we allow our imagination to be free to devise ways of teaching well.

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Dear Mrs. Youngs,

You are the nicest teacher I ever had. I like you very much. I like you so much I LOVE you.***

WELL, come to think of it who doesn't??????

I know I do.

I hope the program will turn out good. My mother said she would come Thursday. I hope the other mothers will come too.

With love,

Gaye

P. S. I can't type very good but I manage to do fairly well.
Timothy School
Cicero, Ill.

Gaye Forcash
Third Grade



Councilletter

Three recent publications stimulate and challenge the thinking of English teachers who are striving to improve the teaching of English at all school levels and to improve college programs for the preparation of teachers of English. They help us to see our task in the light of the needs and possibilities of this period of scientific and cultural revolution. They may add strength to our efforts to interpret our problems and aspirations to political and cultural leaders and to the general public.

The report of the President's Commission on National Goals published under the title, *Goals for Americans*, contains material all of us need to study. The chapter on "National Goals in Education," by John W. Gardner, President of the Carnegie Foundation, has outlined a concrete program for a decade, much of which applies to us and our teaching. He emphasizes the national responsibility to provide equality of opportunity to all of our children, which means to us the need for qualified teachers of English, together with teaching conditions and loads which make good teaching possible. In his consideration of curriculum, Dr. Gardner ranks reading the most important subject of the elementary school and states that the first step to improve the teaching of reading is to improve the teachers. He considers it a mistake to permit any teacher to teach reading who has not "had courses in the specific methods of teaching reading" so that he knows how to provide opportunity and guidance for each child to move as swiftly as his capacities

permit and how to give the slow learners thorough attention. His first requirement for a high school teacher of English is competence in teaching composition. This requirement cannot be met by teachers who are overloaded, and he recommends that no teacher handle more than 100 students. All of this is in accord with statements in our own very significant new publication, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*.

As specialists in English, we are deeply concerned with the teaching of reading and of composition. Teachers in the elementary school realize, however, that good teaching of reading requires good teaching of all aspects of language. Competent teaching of composition in the high school is of great importance but equally important is competent teaching of literature and language. Skills cannot exist apart from content and from the medium in which they operate. We can accept the challenge in Dr. Gardner's report and still fit it into our larger concept of our task.

There is material for us in LIFE Magazine's symposium on *The National Purpose*. In the authors' analysis of the framework within which our culture has developed and the purposes which are inherent in all of our national effort there are both challenge and inspiration. The nation-wide questioning of national purpose, Albert Wohlstetter tells us, indicates that we are in trouble and need to look again at the purposes stated by the founders of our republic and appraise them in the light of today's needs.

A purpose is not a wish, a dream, or a mission. "... One fundamental purpose of a democracy is the exercise of reasoned choice, the conscious shaping of events. . . . If the hard problems of our time stir us to more reflective choice, then they will have helped us fulfill one important purpose of a democratic society."

In the introduction to his report on *The Process of Education*, Dr. Jerome S. Bruner of Harvard says, "Each new generation gives new form to the aspirations that shape education in its time. What may be emerging as a mark of our own generation is a widespread renewal of concern for the quality and intellectual aims of education—but without abandonment of the ideal that education should serve as a means of training well-balanced citizens for a democracy." The profound scientific revolution of our times is causing many people to ask, "What shall we teach and to what end?" This book is the outgrowth of a conference held at Woods Hole on Cape Cod in September of 1959, in which thirty-five scientists, scholars, and educators discussed how education in science might be improved in our primary and secondary schools. Teachers of English will be interested in studying this report because all of it is as applicable to our teaching of English as it is to the teaching of science and mathematics, the fields from which the major examples in the book are drawn.

The chapter on "Readiness for Learning" begins with this hypothesis: that any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development. In order to do this one must represent the structure of that subject in terms of the child's way of viewing things and that way differs as the child grows and matures. The members of the conference believe that in the teaching of any subject it may be as important to develop intuitive thinking as to develop

analytical thinking. Certainly we need both in the field of English. The creative writer, the literary critic, and the child struggling to express his ideas need confidence in their own intuitions in order to build courageous taste. Schools tend, the author tells us, to emphasize the acquisition of factual knowledge, since that can be most easily evaluated, at the expense of the development of the kind of intuition that propels the great scientist, writer, or artist into his finest thought and effort.

Inherent in this report of the thinking of scholars is a point of view diametrically opposed to that of a few other scholars who would have the school drill on facts and manipulation of processes during the early years and strive to develop thinking and reasoning later on. The scholars who attended the conference at Woods Hole believe that every year is important for the building of basic concepts and ideals as well as the skills that are essential to our way of life.

The Executive Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English appointed a committee which gathered evidence of the critical deficiencies and chaotic standards that prevail in the training of English teachers and the effect of this chaos on the level of learning in the nation's elementary and high schools. Since the teaching of English is basic to the entire educational program it is the hope of the Council that the findings which are presented in the publication, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English: a Report to the Profession*, will stimulate nation-wide interest in the provision of resources for research and improvement in the teaching of English. All of us, from teachers of kindergarten to teachers in graduate schools, have a stake in the outcome of this important effort of the Council.—Ruth G. Strickland, *Past President, the National Council of Teachers of English*



Alice Sankey

Word for the Day

Final 1960 issue of "Middle-Grade Activities," a publication of Scott, Foresman and Company, revealed the name of the first prize winner of the publication's dictionary section contest, and her winning report.

Mrs. Hazel Hill, fourth-grade teacher in the Polk Public School, Polk, Nebraska, won the contest on the subject "A Word a Day Helps Our Vocabularies Grow."

In the hope that other fourth-grade teachers will find it helpful, and with the permission of the publisher, here is a reprint of Mrs. Hill's article:

"Every morning during the winter my fourth-graders would come filing into the classroom and walk right straight over to our Word for the Day bulletin board.

"There they were greeted by Snowman in his bright stocking cap, holding a big, white cotton snowball in his hands. Scotch-taped to the snowball was a round card upon which I had written the Word for the Day. Once the children found out what the word was, the stage was set for a series of daily activities planned to help them make each day's word their own.

To Our Dictionaries We Go

"First step was to look the Word for the Day up in their (Thorndike-Barnhart) Dictionaries and study its pronunciation and meanings.

"Each child had his own notebook in which to enter the new word. Rules were:

1. Write the word correctly.
2. Write the pronunciation found in the dictionary.
3. Select one meaning.
4. Use that meaning correctly in a sentence.

"Later on, at a regular time each day, the class got together for a lively session with the Word for the Day. Out would come our cardboard spinner (a large board about two feet square, with all names in a circle and a spinning pointer in the center). Round and round the indicator would go. Then, up to the front of the room—to read what he had written about the word in his Word Book—would come the child on whose name the indicator stopped.

"This was always an exciting time of the day for the children, and a profitable one. It led to much that was worth while: discussions that helped pin word meanings down—spellings and pronunciations, too; friendly arguments that had the children reaching for their dictionaries and growing in appreciation of the usefulness of those books.

"We made good use of our big Thorndike-Barnhart Dictionary Wall Chart. The activities and the blown-up dictionary page on the Know Your Dictionary side of the chart helped us tune up our locating- and meaning-getting skills. The Circus Parade

Pronunciation Key on the other side of the chart gave us a lift with pronunciation problems.

"Almost from the very first day of these vocabulary-building activities, the children were on the lookout for unfamiliar words.

Words From Here, There, Everywhere

"New words met in reading and other subjects were especially good to work with. So, of course, were those encountered outside the classroom: *caucus*, spotted on a Board of Education placard; *dehydrated*, spied at noon lunch period on a gallon can.

"Never was there a morning when Snowman was without an interesting new word for the children to dig into. As each snowball card was taken down, it was placed on our reading table or 'Privilege Table,' as we call it. The children liked to flash the cards at each other, calling for pronunciations and meanings.

"And so day by day as winter went, vocabularies grew and grew. When spring came and it was time for Snowman to go, the children were sorry to part with him. He had done so much to open up for them a fine new world—the Wonderful World of Words."

As an interesting sidelight in "Middle-Grade Activities," which is a service periodical for teachers, the "Miss Jones" column quotes a letter from Mrs. Hill.

"Hardly a school day would end," Mrs. Hill wrote, "that one of the children didn't ask me: 'What's the Word for the Day tomorrow going to be?' Almost always I kept the new word a secret and I never changed our Word for the Day bulletin board until after school and the children had all gone home. But I found I had to be wary! Often I'd catch some little loiterer lurking around after the others had gone—trying to get a glimpse of the new word as I wrote it on the snowball card, or a

peek at the bulletin board once the word was up and everything ready for the next day."

The tip was published as an "alert" to teachers who may be thinking about getting a similar activity rolling.

Mrs. Roberta Forsyth, teacher-librarian at Bass school in Chicago, had charge of the Miracle of Books fair feature in which visitors voted for their favorite books. She was one of 175 volunteers, professional persons from the fields of education, publishing, and library science, who contributed their services during the Nov. 5-13 fair sponsored by the Chicago Tribune, the Museum of Science and Industry and the Children's Book Council.

"Children's taste in literature is fascinating in its variety," Mrs. Forsyth commented as she scanned the first 3,000 votes recorded and found that more than 200 books had been named.

"The vast majority of children voted for books which qualify as fine literature," she said. Books which were doing well in the early balloting included *Little Women*, *Black Beauty*, *Heidi*, *Hans Brinker*, *The Yearling*, and *Robinson Crusoe*. A children's version of *Kon Tiki*, *The Story of Jesus*, *Know Your Government*, and *Romance of Capitalism* were among top runners.

Original art work, borrowed from the book publishers, showed large illustrations of the pictures found in new books as part of the exhibit. Approximately 3,000 books, new titles and old favorites, from picture books to fiction to science books, were displayed.

In the "Book Bulletin" of the Chicago Public Library, presented to visitors during the 8th annual book fair, the theme of the event was summed up under the title "Hurray for Books!"

The bulletin said, in part:

"Fortunate indeed are the boys and girls who are growing up in the world today where hundreds of well-written, splendidly illustrated books on an almost limitless variety of subjects are available for their enjoyment and inspiration. Twice fortunate are those children whose parents share with them both the standard books and classics of the past and the significant books being written for children today.

"There are dramatic stories that tell of inspiring deeds of great physical and spiritual courage to help strengthen the child's own courage and fortify his faith

in high ideals. To stimulate his imagination there are intriguing tales of wonder and magic retold from the folklore of the past.

"There are heart-warming stories about people around the world that will increase the child's understanding of the likenesses and differences in people and will kindle in him a spirit of sympathy for his fellow man. Factual books about everything the child sees, smells, hears, tastes, and touches will satisfy his curiosity about the world around him, extend his horizons, and encourage him to think objectively and creatively."

LINGUISTICS AND I

(Continued from page 231)

more. Mistakes are old familiar friends, ones I shall expect to meet often, but I prefer advancing by stepping on mistakes to standing still ignominiously.

Of course, since I don't belong in the realm of scholars, we are strange companions, but delighted and excited ones—Linguistics and I!

POISE IS PRACTICE PERFECTED

(Continued from page 232)

4. If there is something funny in what the speaker is telling, laugh politely so you do not spoil the rest of his turn.
5. You may clap to show you liked the things the speaker said or did. Be careful not to clap too long . . . or too loudly.

6. Check the points for the speaker when the chairman asks your help.

CONCLUSION

It is amazing to see how these children overcome their shyness in telling of pets, gardens, families, favorite programs on TV, trips, and games, or hobbies. To see such an extended training carried on frequently is to realize that poise is practice perfected.

PUPILS' INTERESTS IN READING

(Continued from page 249)

and pleased to find that a few were expecting to become teachers. There was a strong interest in college work. Several plan to join the Air Force.

In general, the reports of the pupils

reflect good home training and favorable influence from the schools and their teachers.

The reading materials were varied. There did not seem to be any special interest in any certain field. I had expected to find a greater interest in the field of science.

Idea Inventory

The only thing I would whip schoolboys for is not knowing English. Churchill

Dr. Wilfred Funk in his book *Six Weeks to Words of Power* (Pocket Books, 35c, Rockefeller Center, N. Y.) has some quotable quotes at the beginning of each chapter which apply to the teaching of English. Some of these are: With words we govern men, *Disraeli*. Syllables govern the word, *Selden*. How forcible are right words, *Job 6:25*. Words are the soul's ambassadors, *Howell*. Words are the voice of the heart, *Confucius*. A word fitly spoken is like apples of gold in pictures of silver, *Proverbs 25:11*. The unaccountable spell that lurks in a syllable, *Hawthorne*. Words are the dress of thoughts, *Chesterfield*. Words are the most powerful drug used by mankind, *Kipling*. The use of the right word is more important than the right argument, *Joseph Conrad*. What a man cannot clearly state he does not know, *British*. And a word spoken in good season, how good it is, *Proverbs 15:23*. Words are the pegs to hang ideas on, *Beecher*. Words are the signs of ideas, *Samuel Johnson*. We rule men with words, *Napoleon*. Language is the immedi-

ate gift of God, *Noah Webster*. Good words are worth much and cost little, *Herbert*. Clearness is the most important matter in the use of words, *Quintillian*. A word travels farther than a man, *German*. Words are the dress of our thoughts, which should no more be presented in rags, tatters, and dirt than your person should, *Chesterfield*.



Dr. Funk's little book is not for young children, but would be a good exercise book for teachers who should increase their knowledge of words, and many of the suggestions may be modified for boys and girls. For instance, Dr. Funk has lists of verbs of exceptional power, verbs of energy, verbs of violent criticism; nouns of pleasant meaning, nouns that carry insults; nouns of

emotion, of sorrow and suffering, of destruction; and workday adjectives and adverbs, adjectives that have to do with size, that suggest unpleasant ideas, that suggest strength, and adjectives we should remember. In one-syllable verbs of power he has *flaunt, flay, flail, rail, wreak, raze, cloy, and foist*. Most of his words are of the 3-, 4-, or

5-syllable type and for grown-ups, yet we should all know them eventually.

It is interesting to learn that *glamour* and *grammar* were at the beginning one and the same word. That is because even as late as the 18th century in England illiteracy was so common that the ability to read and write was associated in a peasant's mind with a kind of magic. In the Middle Ages, Latin was the language of the cultured intellectuals, but the illiterate masses thought Latin grammar had something to do with black magic. The letter "r" in grammar changed to "l" as "r" often does in the mutations of language. *Glamour* became a brand-new word which in the beginning meant "magic," a "spell or charm." Now in the 20th century the meaning has no association whatever with Latin grammar.

Dr. Funk says that in the year 1789 a wise Frenchman prophesied that English would one day become the universal language. In a birthday message to the *New York Times* in January 1960, Somerset Maugham said: "I have an idea that in 200 or 300 years English will be the universal language spoken all over the world. Of course, it won't be the English we speak now. It will probably be even more strange than the language of Chaucer is to us now, but it will be founded on the language of today."

In a chapter on slang Dr. Funk says: "When Benjamin Franklin came home to America in 1789 after a nine-year stay in France, his ears were shocked by the cheap new slang words that had crept into use during his absence. He couldn't believe that literate people were using such ugly upstart words as *deputize*, *nice*, *raise*, and *oppose*; or such tawdry inventions as to *advocate*, to *progress*, to *deed*, to *notice*, to *locate*. He urged the great Noah Webster to help him put down this ruinous rebellion before the language should be destroyed.

Again, the dictionary maker, Samuel Johnson, in his day fulminated against the then new, brash slang words, *fun*, *banter*, *coax*, *budge*, *fib*, *glee*, *jeopardy*, *smolder*, and *chaperon*. Around the middle of the 19th century, grammarians were appalled by a host of fresh slang incursions. Vicious verbs like *to endorse*, *to itemize*, and *to affiliate* had been introduced into the business vocabulary, and there were other such demoralizing terms as *predicate*, *collide*, *resurrect*, and *Americanize*. In 1787 Thomas Jefferson was reviled for using the sordid word *belittle*. John Quincy Adams faced a devastating purist barrage when he dared use *antagonize*, and George Washington shocked the civilized world with the barbarian word *derange*."

Farm children would like to hear the history of the word *barn*. Although it is now a one-syllable word, it comes from two Anglo-Saxon words, *bere*, "barley," and *aern*, "place." That is, the *bere-aern*, our *barn*, was originally "a place for barley."

When John L. Lewis retired in 1959 as President of the United Mine Workers of America, reporters recalled his "golden oratory." Dr. Funk in his book quotes John L. Lewis three times along with masters of English such as Churchill, Walter Lippman, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, and Edith Wharton. Where did John L. Lewis learn the art of golden oratory? He left school at the end of 7th grade to go into the Iowa coal mines with his miner father. Yet his speeches are filled with Latin derivatives, as in the sentence: "The malicious, interfering action of the board is designed to prolong the controversy." Obviously, the boy-miner rose to lead the other miners because he loved *words* and used them to advantage. But it was not the love of words alone that made his "golden oratory." It was his love of the *cause* for which he

worked for the betterment of the coal-miners.

At Iowa State University at Ames, seniors are given an English examination before they face the world of employers. Most of those who fail are simply careless. Many students have to correct habits of language formed during the first 17 or 18 years of their lives in a brief four years at college. A joke in the newspaper said: "At Iowa State University 20 per cent of the seniors flunk a freshman-level English composition test. Probably a case of under-motivation. Few students plan to work in their father's essay factory."

The part motivation plays in learning the use of words is certainly to be respected. But it is not always motivation for earning one's living. Gamaliel Bradford in his essay on Thomas Paine in *Damaged Souls* (Houghton 1922) says that Thomas Paine, who was a rebel at heart, was only slightly educated. He was not a profound thinker; it was rebelliousness which motivated Paine. To quote Bradford:

What he did have supremely was a gift of words, and there is no more shining and convenient and dangerous weapon in all the rebel's armory. Really the man was an astonishing writer. Critics have been fooled by his ignorance of grammar. Shakespeare was ignorant of grammar, yet some think he could write. Paine was ignorant of everything, though his remarkable memory made him appear to know a great deal. But he certainly was a master of words. They would glow and glitter at his bidding, and fire men's hearts, and turn a small spark into a great flame. They would bite, too, and dart and sting and lash, till his victims writhed and were forced to take refuge in ignoble

and usually in dull retaliation. I think Paine's secret, like Swift's, lies more in rhythm than in anything else. His diction is clear and simple and direct; but above all his phrases snap and crack like whips, with a firm and vigorous movement that every daily journalist must envy. How far he understood his own style is a question. He was too busy to study it. That some of the strange problems connected with words interested him is evident from his charming remark: 'I have often observed that by lending words for my thoughts I understand my thoughts the better.' That he appreciated all the terrible dangers of words is unlikely: rebels seldom do appreciate them. But that he luxuriated in his own verbal power is clear enough.*

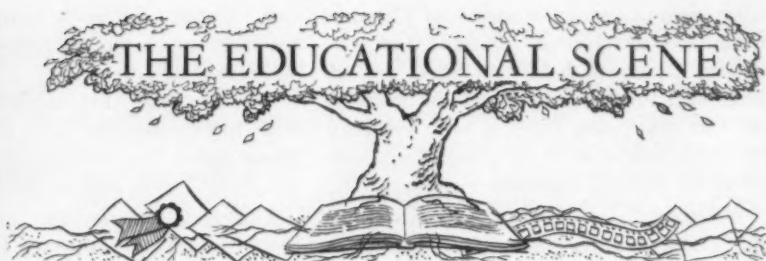
We are indebted to Thomas Paine because he was the first to use the ringing words, "The United States of America." The famous first sentence of *The Crisis* consists of words of one syllable: "These are the times that try men's souls."

Since neither John L. Lewis nor Thomas Paine had much education in their youth, their oratory and gift for words came from motivation for their cause. Students today from grade-school through college really have good motivation for learning to speak and write forceful English. Albert L. Walker, Chairman, Department of English and Speech at Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa, says the senior English examination is not given as punishment but as a final reminder that young people cannot neglect written composition in this modern world of written reports and speeches.

*From *Damaged Souls* by Gamaliel Bradford (Houghton Mifflin, 1922) pp. 79-80. Quoted by permission of the publishers.



William A. Jenkins



The National Interest

NCTE's report on the status of the profession, *The National Interest and the Teaching of English*, has created new interest in the teaching of English. This attempt to draw together all available factual information about the teaching of English in order to enlist greater national support for the teaching of English and the humanities has been hailed in editorials, broadcasts, articles, and reviews. Obviously here is a statement too long unspoken. And just as obviously a need exists which can be met only through concerted national effort. To assume, as was done in many quarters several years ago, that much of what is wrong with the country in general, and education specifically, could be righted through crash programs in mathematics, foreign languages, and science, was a fallacious approach.

The shortage of buildings and books, the overcrowded classrooms, the shortage of well-trained teachers, the inadequacy of teaching conditions, and thirty-two specific recommendations are highlights of the report. Nationally, it has been hailed as the first critique on the teaching of English in 35 years.

The effect of the status report hopefully will not depend solely on its publication.

Dr. Jenkins is Professor of Elementary Education at the University of Wisconsin—Milwaukee.

Regional English groups can inform the public and the profession of the findings. Legislators may be invited to discuss it and the need for including English if the National Defense Education Act of 1958 is extended and broadened by Congress. Programs may be planned around the report and local schools may be assessed according to its criteria. (A complete list of suggestions may be found in the February 10 issue of *Council-Grams* which has been sent to all officers of affiliates and public relations representatives.) Most important of all, language arts teachers may inform themselves about the status of their profession.

Individual copies of the 140-page report are available from NCTE for \$1.65 to NCTE members; \$1.95 to others. A six-page leaflet summarizing the report and recommendations is available, 25 leaflets for \$1. Some affiliates are using copies of the leaflets for widespread local distribution.

A study of children's language

A study is in progress at Indiana University designed to analyze the structure of children's language in the first through sixth grades and compare it with the language of books which children use in learning to read. It will also study the influence of the discrepancy between these two levels of language on the child's success in learning to read. To date, recordings

have been made of the speech of 750 children taken in informal situations. The children's speech is being analyzed by six structural linguists. Although the study is only at mid-point, there is now evidence that children, even at six years of age, use all of the types of sentences used by adults.

A formula, devised by the linguists, has the children enter sentence elements in fixed slots in sentences—such elements as subject, predicate, and complement. Although there is a difference in complication of entries made by younger and older children, it appears that children of all ages can skillfully fill the slots in many different sentence patterns. There is evidence that speech flows smoothly and rhythmically for all children and that even the youngest child can subordinate. The latter part of the study will analyze, through recordings, language use in more formal situations in which the child must display the best language use he is capable of.

The study will include these phases:

1. Recording the spoken language of 6 through 12 year old children in its spontaneous form in free interaction with children and adults and in its structured form in sharing, planning, reporting, and evaluating periods in the classroom

2. Analyzing this spoken language for the following points:

- Kinds of sentences
- Length of sentences
- Linguistic structure of sentences
- Amount and kinds of subordination
- Patterns of word usage
- Rhythm and flow of language

3. Analyzing for the above points selected samples of reading matter in certain widely used sets of readers for grades 1 to 6

4. Appraising children's interpretation of some of these samples read orally

5. Testing children's comprehension of the meaning of similar samples of material when read silently

6. Comparing the quality of reading with the quality and kind of spoken language used by children of varying age, sex, intelligence, and socioeconomic levels.

This well may be the most significant research into the nature of language used by children since the 1930's. In recent years many teachers have been concerned because the language employed in children's readers has become progressively easier and less complex while the experiences which children receive—through radio, television, motion pictures, and travel—have been more complex. Although there has been little proof that children's language is much more advanced and complicated than that of similar age groups two or three decades ago, it appears a fair assumption that it should be. The Indiana study promises to give us needed facts about this situation. It well may show that we have been over-controlling, over-simplifying, and over-limiting the vocabulary of children's textbooks.

New recording

Frank Luther Sings Lois Lenski Songs. A 12" LP recording. Henry L. Walck, Inc., 101 Fifth Avenue, New York 3, New York. \$4.46 net for schools and libraries.

This is the first LP recording of Lois Lenski's *Songs of Mr. Small* and her *Read-and-Sing* books. Undoubtedly it will delight this generation's small fry as Miss Lenski's books have pleased primary graders for years. Teachers should be equally as pleased to add this fine recording to the growing number of available adjuncts to children's literature.

Side 1 includes *The Little Auto, The Little Train, The Little Farm, The Little Sailboat, The Little Airplane, The Little*

Fire Engine, Cowboy Small, and Papa Small. The jacket of the recording features a record-book index, permitting the teacher to locate songs in the various Lenski books.

Side 2 features songs of the three *Read-and-Sing* books: "I Went for a Walk," an introduction to community life; "At Our House," everyday things at home; and "When I Grow Up," eleven occupations each for boys and girls. Each verse is sung by Mr. Luther. Then the music is repeated by the orchestra so that the listener can read or sing the text and have time to turn the page of the book. The gay verses, the child's-eye view of the world expressed in his language, and the simple, tuneful melodies will have great appeal for the youngest child.

Mr. Small needs no press agent. Children have loved him for years, have sympathized with his child-size obstacles to be overcome, and have revelled in his mastery of the mechanical monsters of our age. Simplicity and authenticity are the striking features of the Small stories. These features are not missing in these songs. They are enhanced by Clyde Robert Bulla's music, Frank Luther's enunciation, and Tony Mottola's orchestra. Lois Lenski's Mr. Small, more than any of these, however, assures success for the recording.

Children's literature

Historical fiction for children has romantic appeal, novelty, and satisfying themes, according to Leland Jacobs. "... there is much about historical fiction to capture and hold the young reader's interest and whet his appetite for the printed page," he wrote in *The Reading Teacher* for January. It can help children understand life in another time and give them a sense of the continuity of the human enterprise, plus giving them a basis for judging the past.

Not all historical fiction available today is good, warns Dr. Jacobs. On occasion contemporary authors are too picturesque. Others are inaccurate. Overzealous reflection of language and dialects create a reading burden for children. And too many facts for the story line may cause the literary vehicle to break down.

Dr. Jacobs also provides us with criteria for judging historical fiction. The teachers should ask these questions:

"Is the story truly historical in nature, or might it as well have been told in a modern setting?"

"Is the spirit of the story authentic and is the information accurate?"

"Is the story tone realistic, free from romanticizing and sentimentalizing the past?"

"Does the story utilize historical settings, events and personages for the creation of a picture of the past that centers in a child character's realization of life rather than as ends in themselves?"

"Is the historical information included that which is truly essential to the behavior of the characters rather than interesting in and of itself?"

"Are the real historical personages included vitally necessary to the telling of the story?"

"Are the motivations and the behavior of the characters appropriate to the influences of the times in which they live?"

"Does the story illuminate life and living in the past in such ways that it raises the sights as well as stirs the imagination of the young today?"

In December, "More Than Words" by Dr. Jacobs appeared in *Childhood Education*. We found it a profound statement on what literature does for children. We also found that it supported our belief that the values of literature for children too frequently are obscured by the glaring light

of pedagogy which focuses on the act of finding symbols on the printed page, necessary though this act may be.

In order not to do violence to Dr. Jacob's fine statement, we should like to quote him:

"Literature for children is more than words, more than reading matter. . . . It is a special way of focusing experiences and relationships with words, wherein the focusing and form-making of the stuff of experience or of the quality of human relationships is the distinctive, the unique achievement. . . . Words are the sharp tools with which the author fashions and orders the images, moods, events and characters which form his writing . . . in the literary experience, the words sink back into the page of print; as words they seem almost to disappear and what they symbolize, rather than their own entities, comes off the page and lives in the imagination of the reader as once they lived in the imagination of the writer. . . . The illumination which comes from a thoroughly exhilarating experience with a piece of literature is sparked by the writer, but the flame is in the reader. Both are essential; each is dependent on the other; each cherishes the other. One way of looking at the literary experience is that both the writer and the reader, from their particular, separate vantage points, give a literary work its chance at greatness. When they are bound together in full communion, the literary work has its moment of greatness as a literary work. . . ."

New materials

Primary Playhouse, Sherwood, Oregon, has announced a set of materials designed to do some of the things that teaching machines do, without the expense of teaching machines. The self-instructional materials include: Jumble Jingle, Flip-Its;

Progress Cards for Jumble Jingles; Phonic Flip-Its (consonants, and alike, and phonograms); Mnemonic Phonics (games and puzzles for two players); Number Peek, Count to Ten; and a free pamphlet, "How You Can Help." Write to Primary Playhouse for more information.

Best Books for Children, a graded, annotated catalog of 3,300 of the best in children's books, is available from the publisher, R. R. Bowker, 62 West 45th Street, New York 36. The 1961 edition costs \$3 in single copies.

Children and Television is a free 18-page booklet by Wilbur Schramm, giving advice to parents on their responsibility for guiding their children's use of the mass media. Write to Television Information Office, 666 Fifth Avenue, New York 19.

For classroom reference you may wish to refer to two articles in other periodicals. *Read* magazine (American Education Publications, 1250 Fairwood Avenue, Columbus 16, Ohio) contains an article by Lou LaBrant on "How Do You Get Them to Write?" *Today's Child* (1225 Broadway, New York 1), in its annual survey of television program, discusses the decreasing amount of planning which is made for programs for children. Few things which stretch the mind or imagination now remain on the TV screens, according to the survey.

Correction

In December we erroneously listed the producers of a set of four filmstrips on *Composition*. The correct producer is Film-strip House, 432 Park Avenue South, New York 16.

The producer erroneously listed, Filmscope, Inc., produces *Learning to Look*, a sound filmstrip series in color. Further information about *Learning to Look* may be

(Continued on page 276)



Mabel F. Altstetter



Edited by Mabel F. Altstetter and Muriel Crosby

BIOGRAPHY

HENRY HUDSON. By Carl Carmer. Illustrated by J. O. Cosgrove, II. Garrard, 1960. List \$2.25; Net \$1.69. (7-14)

The Garrard Press has introduced a new series of "Discovery Books," easy to read, with reading level, grades 2-4 and interest level for 7s-14's. *Henry Hudson* tells



the story of the famous explorer and his young son, John, who weathered fearful storms, hostile Indians, and treacherous ice in the discovery of a great bay and river. This is a vivid and dramatic story for adventure-loving children. C



Muriel Crosby

MEN OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION. By the editors of "American Heritage." *American Heritage*, 1961. \$3.50; Library Binding, \$3.79. (10-16)

Another in the Heritage series of books, which are making their mark, not only because of the quality of content and illus-



tration, but because they are fine examples of the art of book-making. *MEN OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION* portrays three and half centuries of achievements in America science by men whose theories, dreams and tinkering changed the face of the American Continent. This is a book to own and cherish. C

GEORGE WASHINGTON CARVER. By Sam and Beryl Epstein. Illustrated by William Moyers. Garrard, 1960. List \$2.25; Net \$1.69. (7-14)

Another of the "Discovery Books" written for young children, yet appealing to the interests of older, reluctant readers, the story of Carver is well told. Man of science and great humanitarian, the life of Carver



is an inspiration to all deprived peoples. This book represents a happy combination of information and emotion. C

SOCIAL STUDIES

PATRICK TAKES A TRIP. By Maureen Daly. Illustrated by Ellie Simmons. Dodd, Mead, 1960. \$2.50. (8-10)



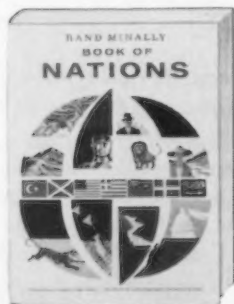
We last left Patrick visiting the farm. In this new "travel book," Patrick visits far-away places and learns that children the world over are friendly. He also learns more about the world, its strange sights and the customs of different peoples. C

THE BEAUTIFUL THINGS. By Thomas McGrath. Illustrated by Chris Jenkins. Vanguard, 1960. \$3.50. (3-8)

When Danny's sister gave him the word, "Beautiful," for a birthday present, she opened up a whole new world for Danny. With the word, Danny discovered the poetry of every day things like trees and

flowers, people, and planets. He discovered the beauty of their forms and colors. He discovered the world of the imagination which makes of the world of reality a desirable place to live. Here is a book to help adult and child alike, discover the beauty and power of words. C

RAND McNALLY BOOK OF NATIONS. Illustrated by Dean Wessel. Rand McNally,



1960. \$4.95 (cloth); \$3.95 (paper over boards).

This is a reference book organized around the continents of the world. For each nation, pertinent information, conveyed through text, maps and charts, relating to places, physical features, climate, population and a vast range of other factors, is provided. This "capsule" treatment is valuable if it leads to wider and deeper reading. C

THE WONDERFUL WORLD OF TRANSPORTATION. By Laurie Lee and David Lambert. Doubleday, 1960. \$2.95. (10-16)

Here is a beautifully designed and illustrated book produced through the combined efforts of a large team of artists, map-makers, and authors. Man is the center of a splendid treatment of transportation on land, water, and in the air. Especially valuable is the story of the historic development of transportation. This book is a proud addition to a junior library. C

SCIENCE

THE STORY OF THE TRADE WINDS. *By Ruth Brindze. Illustrated by Hilda Simon. Vanguard, 1960. \$3.50. (10-14)*

This is an exciting and beautiful book telling about the rivers of the sky. Why the Trade Winds are so designated, how they were discovered, the benefits they bring to man will be fascinating discoveries for young readers. Miss Brindze is a prize-winning author noted for her clarity of style, authentic information, and ability to appeal to the imagination. C

SATELLITES IN OUTER SPACE. *By Isaac Asimov. Illustrations by John Palgreen. Random, 1960. \$1.95. (8-11)*

Explaining how scientists use satellites to find out more about the earth, the moon and outer space, the author deals with interests of space-minded boys and girls. Satellites that photographed the far side of the moon, that showed scientists the real shape of the earth, that will carry man into space, are among the interesting matters presented. C

NUMBERS OLD AND NEW. *By Irving and Ruth Adler. Illustrated by Peggy Adler. John Day, 1960. Library Binding \$2.19. (8-12)*

Without mathematics there would be no science as a tool for man to further his knowledge. In this representative book in the "Reason Why" series, the wonder and magic of number as well as their uses are presented in clear and easy to read style. This is a delightful introduction to a fascinating subject. C

A JUNIOR SCIENCE BOOK OF MAGNETS. *By Rocco V. Feravolo. Illustrated by Evelyn Urbanowich. Garrard, 1960. List \$2.25; Net \$1.69. (7-14)*

Junior Science Books are designed for a reading level of Grades 2-5, with an interest level of ages 7-14. How magnets have changed our world, the strange power of



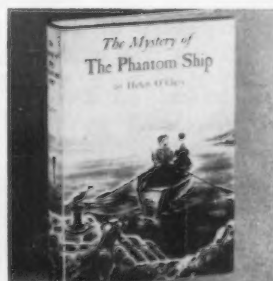
magnets and how man has put magnets to work for him are among the aspects of this intriguing subject treated by the author. Clear diagrams and illustrations help make meaningful the principles presented in the text. C

ANIMAL BABIES. *By Tony Palazzo. Illustrated by the author. Doubleday, 1960. \$2.50. (2-6)*

The incomparable Tony Palazzo has created a delightful picture book for the very young who appreciate animal babies. Simple, brief, uncluttered text accompanies the pictures. The wear and tear of eager readers justify a sturdier binding. C

FICTION

THE MYSTERY OF THE PHANTOM SHIP. *By Helen O'Clery. Watts, 1961. \$2.95. (12 up)*



There is an unusual setting for this fast-paced mystery—the coast of Ireland and Seal Island, and the misty sea between them. A glimpse of a French trawler through the fog sets in motion a whole series of adventures for young Brian who tells the story. He becomes involved with shipwreck, castaways, smugglers, terrible storms, and a secret underground cave harbor. There is a thrilling account of life on the island where a group of sturdy people live by ancient laws and even have a king of their own.

It is a fascinating yarn, well-written and full of suspense. A

A FILLY FOR JOAN. *Story and pictures by C. W. Anderson. Macmillan, 1960. \$3.00. (8-12)*



There is much to delight a lover of horses in Anderson's newest story. Through Joan's experiences in acquiring a horse one learns much about breeding, training, and racing horses. There is a satisfying ending which will please the ardent admirer of horses.

As always, Anderson's illustrations are superb and Gallant Lady seems actually to run and jump across the pages. A

PAGAN THE BLACK. *By Dorothy Potter Benedict. Illustrated by John Groth. Pantheon, 1960. \$3.00. (8-12)*

Pagan was a magnificent stallion and his owner, twelve-year-old Sandy, respected his proud, wild nature and love of freedom. Tragedy strikes when Pagan kills a man

who threatens his owner. The horse is cleared finally after some trying hours.

There is much to be gained from reading about life on an isolated Montana ranch and about the loyalty possible between a horse and a boy. There are good family relationships in the book. A

TALES OF A COMMON PIGEON. *By Sara Weeks. Illustrated by Eric Von Schmidt. Houghton, 1960. \$2.75. (7-10)*

The Boston Common is the scene of this charming story narrated by Old Blue, a



pigeon whose sharp comments on other creatures who live there carries the reader through a birdseye view of activities. People are unimportant, for as Old Blue says, they all look alike, but a mouse, a monkey, an alley cat, and pert sparrow achieve personalities all their own.

There is freshness of inventiveness and art in writing that make this book outstanding. A

ITALIAN PEEPSHOW. *By Eleanor Farjeon. Illustrated by Edward Ardizzone. Walck, 1960. \$2.75. (6-10)*

The gifted storyteller, Eleanor Farjeon, has written eleven stories of magic and fun, weaving them around three little girls who went to Italy to live. The stories are about kings and princesses, magic herbs, dancing shoes, and other fantastic things and people all related with the poetic touch characteristic of the author. A

EASY BOOKS

BIG AND LITTLE, UP AND DOWN. By Ethel S. Berkley. Pictures by Katherine Elgin. Scott, 1960. \$2.50. (6-8)

This interesting book with its attractive pictures develops early concepts of size and direction- big and little, narrow and wide, tall and short, under and over and so on. The idea of relative size and distance is developed, e.g., a giraffe is tall when he stands by a man but he is shorter than a tree when he stands beside one. A tree is short when it is planted by a skyscraper. Parents and teachers will find the book useful in developmental arithmetic and in understanding general concepts. A

EVERYTHING HAPPENS TO STUEY. By Lillian Moore. Illustrations by Mary Stevens. Random, 1960. \$1.95. (8-10)

Stuey Wilson is an average boy with a propensity for getting into trouble without meaning to do it. His chemistry set is the cause of some of his difficulties and the reader shares the concern of his understanding family. The easy vocabulary coupled with strong interest makes this a valuable book for the independent reader of about third grade level or a reluctant reader in later grades. A

MISCELLANEOUS

PRAYERS BY ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON. *Decorations and calligraphy by Hilda Scott.* Macmillan, 1960, \$2.50. (All ages)

This collection was originally published under the title, *Prayers Written at Vailima*. The present edition is especially beautiful because of the delicate decorations and the exquisite lettering, both appropriate for the spirit of the prayers.

The reader gains new insight into RLS as he sees him, the head of a household

in Samoa, in reverent and beautiful prayers with his family and servants at nightfall. His wife says in the preface of the book, "With my husband, prayer, the direct



appeal, was a necessity. When he was happy he felt impelled to offer thanks for that undeserved joy; when in sorrow, or pain, to call for strength to bear what must be borne."

This is a book to share with others and to turn to again and again. A

INDOOR GAMES AND ACTIVITIES. By Sylvia Cassell. Illustrated by Sylvia S. Cassell. Harper, 1960. \$2.75. (7-11)

Parents, teachers, den mothers, and scout leaders will find this book fresh and helpful. Ideas for crafts, cooking, puzzles, games, and experiments in science are suggested and illustrated. The author and the illustrator are both experienced leaders in recreation. A

COOKING FUN. By Barbara Guthrie McDonald. Illustrated by Vee Guthrie Walck, 1960. \$3.00. (6-10)

The seventy pages of this book are packed with information. Basic ideas such as how to read a measuring cup and how to use heat are combined with simple recipes. Recipe terms and cooking words are illustrated and defined. The book is made attractive with manuscript writing

and colored pictures. It is a valuable book for beginners. A

THE STORY OF OUR NATIONAL BALLADS. By C. A. Browne. Revised by Willard A. Heaps. Crowell, 1960. \$3.00. (12 up)

From "Yankee Doodle" to "God Bless America" the chapters of this book range from the banal tear-jerker to the genuine poetry of "America the Beautiful." There is information about the author and the occasion that prompted the writing. Special stress is placed on the ballads that came out of our national wars.

The authors show how songs reflect the national spirit of the time in which they

were written. The book is a valuable addition to a reference shelf. A

SONGS ALONG THE WAY. By Elizabeth Allstrom. Woodcuts by Mel Silverman. Abingdon, 1961. \$2.50. (9 up)

The psalms were ancient songs of Israel before they were collected and put into one book of the Old Testament. Miss Allstrom has selected some of the most beautiful and most meaningful in terms of today's living. She has written a fitting introduction to each one.

The dignity and beauty of the words are reinforced by powerful and moving woodcuts. A

(Continued from page 270)

obtained by writing to Filmscope, Box 397, Sierra Madre, California.

Junior Literary Guild

Here are the selections for April:

For boys and girls, 5 and 6 years old:

Emily Emerson's Moon by Jean Merrill. Little, Brown, \$2.75.

For boys and girls, 7 and 8 years old:

Whitey's First Roundup by Glen Rounds. Holiday House, \$2.50.

For boys and girls, 9, 10, and 11 years old:

The City Under the Back Steps by Evelyn Sibley Lampman. Doubleday, \$2.95.

For older girls, 12-16 years old:

Janine by Robin McKown. Julian Messner, \$2.95.

For older boys, 12-16 years old:

Secret Beyond the Mountains by Rita Ritchie. E. P. Dutton, \$3.50.

The following poems, sent in by Mrs. Marguerite Archer, were written by pupils of Marion Sinclair, Pelham, New York. We regret we cannot publish the charming drawings that accompanied them.

The Wind

The wind is tough and rough.
He blows down trees and lines.

He picked me up one day.

And then he dropped me hard.

Edward Molisani, age 7

The Storm

Outside there is a terrible storm.

But here in school we're cozy and warm.

Andrea Schweitzer, age 7

Fluffy Snow

Fluffy fluffy snow

You are like banks of whipped cream,

Piles of shaving cream,

Banks of snow white cotton,

And marshmallows, marshmallows, marshmallows, by Bubber Fischer

Bubber Fischer, age 7

During the Storm

On my way to school

I ploughed through the snow.

I thought it was fun

To hear the wind run.

David Noto, age 8

The Storm

When I go out in the terrible storm

It says to me that I am a toy.

Cathy Winsor, age 7

*Sometimes it's easy
to make your choice*



(Chances are you wouldn't have *room* for a giraffe!) But there are other times when the nature of the differences makes it harder to decide. Some teachers spot at once, in Heath's *English Is Our Language*, the exciting big difference between this and the series they are using or considering. Others gradually sense a lot of small advantages that add up to the same conclusion—"Here is the series we want!"

If you are not already familiar with *English Is Our Language*, for Grades 2-8, may we show you the nature of the differences that make this series so appealing? The program includes texts, studybooks, guides, and teacher's editions.

D. C. HEATH AND COMPANY



BUILDING SPELLING POWER

by **JEAN** and **PAUL HANNA** is a remarkably effective series for **Grades 2-8**. It provides a solid foundation in spelling skills which, once mastered, enable pupils to spell correctly and with confidence.

BUILDING SPELLING POWER

concentrates on teaching spelling principles which pupils can apply not only to the basic spelling list but to the words they may want and need to use in writing activities. The word list in each textbook is set up in **groupings of similar phonetic characteristics**. In this way the child gains familiarity first with the most regular spellings of speech sounds and later, the less regular spellings.

BUILDING SPELLING POWER

does exactly what its title implies. The result is **confidence** and **competence** in this important phase of the language arts.

BUILDING SPELLING POWER

is published both in textbook-notebook editions and in cloth-bound editions. Teacher's Editions and duplicating masters for weekly tests are also available.

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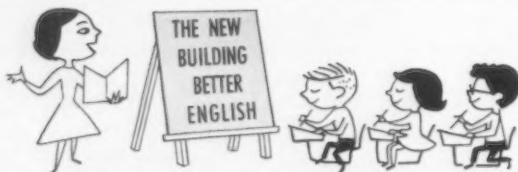
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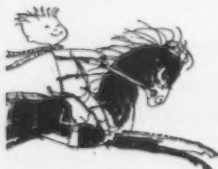


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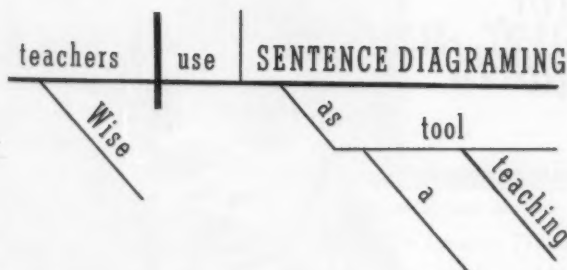
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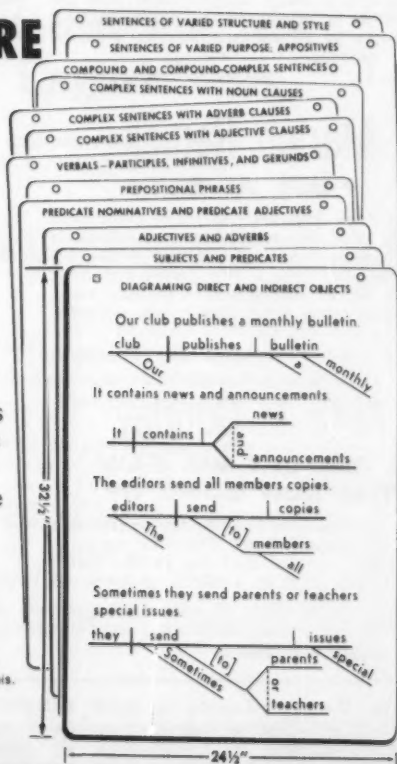
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